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ABSTRACT

This packet contains 24 articles reprinted from books and journals dealing with effective staff development in small and rural schools. The articles are arranged in four sections. The first section reviews current research on staff development, discussing workable ideas, decision making principles, and general characteristics of effective staff development program. The second section contains detailed reports on specific staff development programs and efforts at the district and school levels, including formal and informal approaches that were proven to be successful. The third section focuses on collaboration and partnership in staff development. "Networks," "partnership," "consortiums," and other types of collaboration across school districts and regions are discussed. Interactive television technology also is suggested as a shared resource for staff development. The final section lists additional guidebooks, research papers, and practical reports on staff development. (ALL)

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TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

The Regional Laboratory
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Fall 1989

Dear Small School Leader:

We are pleased to send you **Effective Staff Development In Rural and Small Schools**, the Small Schools Network Information Exchange Packet Number 8. It is the first of two packets to be developed for Small Schools Network member districts during the 1989-90 school year. As always, the topic was determined by Small Schools Network members in response to our annual evaluation survey.

This packet is divided into four sections. Section 1 presents a general overview of current research on staff development; Section 2 focuses on successful staff development practices at the district and school levels. Section 3 explores collaborations and partnerships for staff development, and Section 4 contains additional resources and a bibliography that you may find useful.

We have enclosed an evaluation card so you can let us know how useful you have found this information. If you wish further information about any of the articles, topics or organizations covered in this packet or if you have knowledge of successful staff development programs that you wish to share with other Small Schools Network members, please feel free to contact us at the Small Schools Network, 83 Boston Post Road, Sudbury, MA 01776, (508) 443-7991.

We urge you to share the contents of this packet. Please feel free to make photocopies for your individual schools, or you may order additional copies at a cost of $15.00, plus $2.50 postage and handling. Please send orders directly to the publications department of The Regional Laboratory at 290 South Main Street, Andover, MA 01810, and cite order number 9066-09.

Thank you for your suggestions for this packet.

Sincerely,

John R. Sullivan, Jr., Ed.D.
Program Director
Small Schools Network

Carolyn J. Burke
Associate Program Director
Small Schools Network

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"Ideas That Work," Chapter Three of Staff Development in Small and Rural School Districts, by Mary Helen White Pelton. The American Association of School Administrators, 1983.

"Your Staff Must Learn Decision Processes," by Thomas E. Persing. The School Administrator, March 1989.

"Critical Attributes of Effective Teacher Development Programs," Chapter Two of Continuing To Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development, by Susan Loucks-Horsley, Catherine Harding, Margaret Arbuckle, Lynn Murray, Cynthia Dubea and Martha Williams, a copublication of The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands and The National Staff Development Council, 1987.

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"Staff Development Through Professional Reading and Discussion," by Maureen A. Sullivan. Journal of Staff Development, Spring 1987, Vol. 8, No. 1.

"Teacher-Conducted Brown Bag Lunch Seminars: One Solution to Staff Development in Isolated Schools," by Paul W. Johnson, Journal of Staff Development, Spring 1989, Vol. 10, No. 2.

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"Teacher Renewal Through A Consortium Approach," by Marilyn Miller. Catalyst for Change, Spring 1986.

"Cross-Organizational Collaboration: A Study of Staff Development and School Improvement Efforts in Oregon," by Vida Taylor, Kim Thompson, and Richard Schmuck. Journal of Staff Development, Spring 1989, Vol. 10, No. 2.

"The Teacher Renewal Institute," by Rachael Heath, Marilyn Miller, Wanda McDaniel, and Fern Mann. Journal of Staff Development, Summer 1987, Vol. 8, No. 2.

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SECTION 1

GENERAL OVERVIEW OF CURRENT RESEARCH ON STAFF DEVELOPMENT

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Characteristics of Effective Staff Development Programs

Planners and deliverers of staff development should make use of the information base in this area so that programs will be productive and credible.

STEPHANIE HINSON
MICHAEL S. CALDWELL
MARY LANDRUM

The effectiveness of staff development in facilitating the continuing professional and personal growth in school personnel has been disputed (Howey & Vaughn, 1983; McLaughlin & Berman, 1977; Wood & Thompson, 1980). While there is support for the effectiveness of staff development training that enables change and improvement in teaching behaviors (Coladarci & Gage, 1984; Cooper & Jones, 1984; Sparks, 1985), skepticism still exists (Daresh, 1987; Korinek, Schmid, & McAdams, 1985; Wade, 1985).

What the Literature Says

Among the commonly cited reasons for staff development's ineffectiveness are lack of sincere commitment and participation by both teachers and administrators, insensitivity of planners to the individual needs of schools and staff members, and the inability to link program content to actual school situations. Concern for the efficacy of staff development activities has led to an increased interest in effective staff development practices. Recommendations from the literature can be grouped into four general categories: (a) planning and management concerns, (b) program content, (c) training components, and (d) method of delivery of the recommended activities.

Planning and Management Concerns

While there are, of course, many factors involved in the planning and management function, the literature tends to focus on (a) when and how often, (b) where, (c) staff participation, and (d) staff incentives.

When and how often. Staff development should be provided in an ongoing, coherent manner extending, at least, through a full school year. Not surprisingly, "one-shot" activities are viewed as relatively ineffective. Services should reflect the needs of the participants over time and provide for continuous growth and learning (Collins, 1981; Daresh, 1987; Firth, 1977; Korinek, Schmid, & McAdams, 1985; Mayfield & Krajewski, 1978; Miller, 1977; Mohlman, Kierstead, & Gundlach, 1982; Oliver, 1980).

Wood, McQuarrie, and Thompson (1982) suggested that all personnel need staff development throughout their careers but that it takes time. Sparks (1983) recommended presenting training in "small chunks" over time and Little (1981) viewed "continuous improvement" as a prescribed norm for all inservice programs. In other words, staff development must be viewed as an incremental process requiring reinforcement through continuing follow-up and feedback (Howey & Vaughn, 1983).

Where. Staff development should be placed as close to the actual site of teaching as possible; that is, activities should be held at the school of the participants whenever appropriate (Collins, 1981; Korinek, Schmid, & McAdams, 1985; Swenson, 1981; Wood, McQuarrie, & Thompson,

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1982; Wu, 1987). Moving the planning and implementation of staff development to the building level has been effective in encouraging awareness and participation in all teachers and administrators at the local school (Wood, Thompson, & Russell, 1981).

Participation. Oliver (1980) found that participation in decision making may serve to motivate staff members. Such participation has included decisions about goals, objectives, content, and organization (Collins, 1981; Firth, 1977; Little, 1981; Mayfield & Krajewski, 1978; Miller, 1977; Oliver, 1980; Trohanis & Jackson, 1980; Wood, McQuarrie, & Thompson, 1982; Wood, Thompson, & Russell, 1981).

Responsibility and accountability for planning should be shared by all participating and interested parties — classroom teachers, principals, and central office administrators. Wood, Thompson, and Russell (1981) even advocate parent involvement to promote understanding and support for program changes. Some writers, however, suggest that shared understanding is more important than direct teacher involvement in the organization of staff development (Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987; Wade, 1985).

Incentives. Participation in staff development activities should be perceived by teachers as non-threatening and non-judgmental, perhaps even informal and relaxing (Firth, 1977; Garmston, 1987; Little, 1981; Showers, 1985; Trohanis & Jackson, 1980; Wood, McQuarrie, & Thompson, 1982; Wood & Thompson, 1980; Wood, Thompson, & Russell, 1981). Salary increases, advanced academic degrees, stipends, or other extrinsic means of reward have not always proven to be effective incentives.

Opportunities for leadership assignments, released time, and the personal satisfaction gained from actual instructional improvement have often been more successful motivators (Firth, 1977; Korinek, Schmid, & McAdams, 1985; McLaughlin & Berman, 1977; Swenson, 1981; Wood, Thompson, & Russell, 1981). Providing released time indicates to participants that the school district is serious about professional development (McLaughlin & Berman, 1977).

Program Content

The staff development literature addresses several issues related to the content of staff development activities. The most prominent of these involve the research base in teaching and job relatedness.

Staff development should be provided in an ongoing, coherent manner extending, at least, through a full school year.

Responsibility and accountability for planning should be shared by all participating and interested parties — classroom teachers, principals, and central office administrators.

Research base in teaching. There is increasing interest in providing teachers with information about the growing body of knowledge on teaching effectiveness (Smith, 1980). This research base has been suggested as one source for first-year teachers to learn about classroom effectiveness (Fitzpatrick, 1982; Sparks, 1985). Joyce & Showers (1982) and Showers (1984) found that providing a presentation of the theoretical base which undergirds a recommended teaching strategy facilitates conceptual understanding, skill development, and subsequent transfer when used with other training components.

Job relatedness. Several writers suggested that staff development activities should prepare participants to apply information from research and "best practice" in their jobs (Leggett & Hoyle, 1987; Wood, Thompson, & Russell, 1981; Wu, 1987). Transfer to the work setting should be the objective of staff development activities, and the test of training is the ability of the teacher to exhibit the newly-acquired skill in the classroom (Gleissman, 1981; Joyce & Showers, 1982).

Effective programs include learnings that are closely related to the classroom. Participants must view the skills they are taught as being realistic, important, relevant and practical to their specific job-related needs. The learning tasks should be structured to effect visible change and improvement in job performance (Firth, 1977; Howey & Vaughn, 1983; Little, 1981; McLaughlin & Berman, 1977; Miller, 1977; Oliver, 1980; Sparks, 1985; Swenson, 1981; Wood & Thompson, 1980; Wood, Thompson, & Russell, 1981).

The individual needs and differences of the teachers and schools should dictate what is to be learned and how it is to be learned (Collins, 1981; Cook, 1985; Garmston, 1987; Grant & Zeichner, 1981; McLaughlin & Berman, 1977; Miller, 1977; Wood & Thompson, 1980; Wood, Thompson, & Russell, 1981; Wu, 1987).

Training Components

Effective training programs include several design components that can be discussed in two categories, activity orientation and support mechanisms.

Activity orientation. Staff development should be activity-oriented, providing hands-on experiences aimed at specific teaching skills (Daresh, 1987; Little, 1981; McLaughlin & Berman, 1977; Miller, 1977; Wood & Thompson, 1980; Wood, Thompson, & Russell, 1981; Wu, 1987). Examples of activity-oriented components which are highlighted in the literature are peer discussion, peer observation, support personnel, and role playing.

Peer observation has been successfully employed in non-threatening, learner-centered situations (Little, 1981; Mohlman, Kierstead, & Gundlach, 1982; Sparks, 1986). Both peer observation and peer discussion use small groups. In several studies, program participants worked in groups of four to eight members to encourage collaboration and reciprocal learning (McLaughlin & Berman, 1977; Mohlman, Kierstead, & Gundlach, 1982; Wood & Thompson, 1980).

Several authors advocate the use of demonstration, practice, and feedback. Demonstration enhanced achievement of mastery while supervised practice and consistent, regular feedback aided in the development of instructional competence (Garmston, 1987; Howey & Vaughn, 1983; Joyce & Clift, 1984; Joyce & Showers, 1980; Wade, 1985; Wood & Thompson, 1980; Wood, Thompson, & Russell, 1981). While these components may be applied separately, the greatest impact was found when they were used in combination (Joyce & Clift, 1984; Joyce & Showers, 1980; Leggett & Hoyle, 1987; Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987; Wade, 1985).

Joyce and Showers (1980, 1982, 1987) and Showers, Joyce, and Bennett (1987) described the use of coaching to complement a demonstration/practice/feedback format. After a presentation of the theoretical basis of a targeted teaching skill and a demonstration by experts, teachers discussed the presentation and demonstration and how they might apply it. Pairs of teachers then observed one another in classroom applications, provided feedback, and then exchanged roles.

Support mechanisms. To effect change, schools should provide appropriate support to counteract the isolation and programmatic fragmentation that often exists (Garmston, 1987; Howey & Vaughn, 1983). School improvement can be achieved when the sense of shared professional involvement occurs in four types of interaction: (a) peer problem solving and discussion about teaching, (b) peer observation and feedback, (c) joint planning, and (d) role exchange.

Mayfield and Krajewski (1978) recommended the formation of a support team to offer help to teachers — beginning teachers in particular. Such teams might include a veteran colleague, a school principal, a state department specialist, and a clinician from a local university (McQuarrie, Wood, & Thompson, 1984). Mentors who are veteran teachers and/or other interested school personnel have been used to boost morale as well as to assist teachers individually or in small or large groups in the transfer of training, analysis of lesson content and teaching strategy, and planning (Fitzpatrick, 1982; Joyce & Showers, 1980, 1982; Little, 1981; Mayfield & Krajewski, 1978; Swenson, 1981; Wood, McQuarrie, & Thompson, 1982).

Effective staff development activities are tied to long-range organizational or individual teacher goals and are ongoing and incremental in nature.

Staff Development Guidelines

While the evidence is certainly not all in regarding staff development programs and practices, there is sufficient agreement in the literature to suggest seven guidelines in the planning and implementation of staff development activities.

1. **Involve participants in planning.** Effective staff development activities are tied to long-range organizational or individual teacher goals and are ongoing and incremental in nature. Therefore, planning should address organizational issues such as when, how often, and where staff development should occur, as well as decisions about staff development content. It seems clear that the "one shot — hit and run" approach to staff development is not only ineffective but also produces negative attitudes about the utility of staff development activities in general. Staff development participants need to be able to place a given activity in a larger context that is directly relevant to their experiences.

There are at least two major aspects of staff development planning in which participants should be involved. First, they should have a voice in decisions about the content and focus of the activities, i.e., the problems or teaching skills that are to be addressed. Second, participants should be involved in decisions about the program's

mode or method of delivery.

2. **Plan for transfer of training.** The literature suggests two ways to increase the probability that the participant will use what is learned in staff development activities. First, the staff development should attempt to increase the theory or knowledge base of participants. An individual who understands *why* is much more likely to be able to transfer a given skill or piece of knowledge to settings other than the one in which the skill or knowledge was acquired. Second, staff development must be job related. To the degree that knowledge and skills are directly associated with what the teacher or administrator is currently doing on the job, the likelihood is increased that the knowledge and skills will be used.

3. **Promote positive participant attitudes.** While attention to the planning suggestions mentioned earlier will assist in the development of positive teacher attitudes toward staff development activities, there are several additional ways to develop appropriate attitudes. First, provide incentives for participants. Provide released time for teachers to engage in staff development and encourage administrator participation in staff development sessions. This will serve to convince teachers that effort spent in staff development is valued by the district and school leadership.

In addition, make it clear to participants that staff development activities are intended to be supportive and nonjudgmental. One way to get this point across is to stress that the problems to be addressed are school or district problems, not the teacher's problems.

4. **Provide support mechanisms.** The concept of nonjudgmental support is consistently advocated in the staff development literature. This support may take many forms (e.g., peer teacher "buddy systems," mentors, small group support and assistance, and instructional supervisors).

5. **Develop activity-oriented components.** Emphasize hands-on activities for participants. The most commonly suggested series of activities in the literature involves demonstration, practice, and feedback. In this series, the participants observe a demonstration or a colleague teaching, have an opportunity to try the skill in question, and are then provided with a critique of the practice session. These arrangements provide participants with opportunities to learn, both as the observer/provider of feedback and as the practitioner/receiver of feedback.

6. **Focus initially on results.** Focus initially on results that are tangible to participants. Many staff development activities begin by trying to change teacher attitudes before changing their behavior. A number of experts, however, argue that changes in attitude come after teachers see that a new practice successfully improves student learning (Guskey, 1985; Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987; Sparks, 1985).

In addition, in many cases, it is necessary to help teachers acquire a heightened sense of self-efficacy early in staff development activities. Self-concept has been found to be a very strong influence on the ability for teachers to implement new teaching skills (Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987). Teachers with high self-esteem usually benefit more from training than less confident colleagues. The development of high self-esteem can be promoted by ensuring early success in training by starting with less difficult tasks, thereby increasing the probability of success (Sparks, 1983).

7. **Provide for specificity and concreteness.** There is strong agreement in the literature that the content of staff development activities should possess a high degree of specificity and concreteness. For example, activities should not deal with the general area of, say, instructional problem solving but rather with the solution to a particular instructional problem. In addition, examples of how to do something should be developed to the point that a teacher can, with a minimum of alteration, use the approach in his or her own classroom. Obviously, this will also produce better transfer of training.

Make it clear to participants that staff development activities are intended to be supportive and nonjudgmental. One way to get this point across is to stress that the problems to be addressed are school or district problems, not the teacher's problems.

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FUTURE NSDC CONFERENCES

The dates shown here include the preconference sessions and the conference itself.

1989
Nov. 27-Dec. 1
Anaheim

1990
Dec. 1-5
Toronto

1991
Dec. 11-15
St. Louis

1992
Dec. 5-9
Washington

Details about the call for proposals, registration, hotels, the conference program, and related information for each conference will be in **The Developer.**

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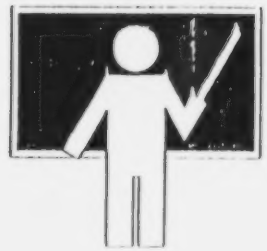

Chapter 3

Ideas That Work

Staff development is a *system*, not a single idea or one inservice program. Staff development is ongoing and occurs at many different levels. The following are effective examples of building blocks that can be used to build a comprehensive program of staff development.

Individualized Staff Development Programs

Individualized programs are ideal for small/rural school districts. They capitalize on the staff members' self directed goals and their creativity. In addition, they have the advantage of being very inexpensive.

Teachers Write Their Own IEP (Individualized Education Plan)

In School Administrative District No. 54, Skowhegan, Maine, the staff development committee provides a wide variety of activities to address identified district needs. One that has been very successful according to the district, is having the teacher write his/her own individualized staff development plan much like handicapped students receive in special education. During the summer, the superintendent and the board develop the district's goals and objectives for the school year. Principals and the special education director then incorporate those directions into their objectives for the coming year.

Using these objectives as a basis, individual teachers may develop their own IEPs. Teachers' plans usually go beyond the district and building level objectives to their own goals for personal and professional improvement. A teacher's IEP might

include such items as visitations, piloting experimental programs, developing new materials for special students, attendance at workshops, and writing or reading articles or books. Other options include working with other teachers on curriculum improvement, developing information exchanges, taking courses, working on schoolwide or districtwide projects, being a mentor for a less-experienced teacher, serving on district or school level committees or developing models or programs which can be shared with other schools or nearby districts. Programs which have been developed and shared include assertive discipline, handicapped awareness, the teacher and school law, improving communication, and substance abuse.

Madonna College, Offers "Improve Your School Program and Earn Credits"

Madonna College, Michigan, has attempted to reach out to rural teachers through this innovative program. Applicants select their own course title, formulate objectives and propose an outline to be approved by college faculty. The course can include committee work, individualized programs and on-the-job research or activity. Consultation with experts is available either through telephone conferences or on-site visitations from college staff.

School Union No. 98's Answer

School Union No. 98 is located on Mount Desert Island, Maine. For years, teachers had been traveling over a difficult and at times dangerous 60-mile stretch of road to attend courses at the University of Maine to receive their state mandated recertification credits. The state education department offered to SU No. 98 the option of piloting an experimental program through which teachers and administrators could develop guidelines for recertifying their teachers locally through a locally designed and approved plan. A committee of 13 teachers, administrators and community representatives worked for one year on a staff development plan which was approved by the local school board, the faculty and the state.

Teachers and administrators still must earn recertification credits, but the plan is locally devised and accepted. Options for professional improvement and recertification credit might include attendance at workshops and conferences, work on study committees, development of improved teaching methods and materials, authorship of programs, purposeful travel, research and experimentation, participation on accreditation teams, participation in experimental programs and traditional university work. Needs assessments are conducted regularly. Teachers and administrators present their plan, project or course to the elected teachers and community members who serve as the local staff development committee. The committee is empowered by the state to approve re-certification locally.

Programs from State Departments

State education departments (SEAs) can provide leadership and resources to help rural/small districts develop quality staff development programs. The following are examples of the SEAs at work.

Vermont's RAP (Resource Agent Program) Workshops

These workshops illustrate an innovative approach to state department service in a rural state. A catalog of 30 workshops is available to local Vermont districts. Resource agents, selected from the ranks of highly skilled practitioners, serve as workshop leaders. One or more teachers may select a desired workshop and arrange topics, times and locations directly with the resource agents. The workshop's activities expose teachers to new techniques in various subjects. The workshops stress active participant involvement through practice, simulation exercises, construction of learning games and the development of instructional objectives.

Maryland Professional Development Academy

Sponsored by the Maryland State Department of Education, the academy provides principals a live-in institute aimed at answering their most pressing needs and thereby improving instruction. The academy offers a wide range of activities, including a pre-institute planning workshop, a week-long live-in institute and two overnight follow-up conferences held three and six months after the institute itself. Participants agree to design and implement a building level action plan as a part of the institute. The academy offers programs in assessing teacher effectiveness and implementing special educational programs.

Maine Comprehensive System of Personnel Development

Under the leadership of Margaret Arbuckle of the Maine Department of Educational and Cultural Services, Maine's Comprehensive System of Personnel Development focuses not on the topics of staff development, but on the process itself. Rather

than impose a state-created plan, the emphasis of the Maine SEA is to assist school districts to devise local staff development systems. To start, several districts were identified that wanted to be part of a system of staff development. Six to eight persons from each district trained for approximately eight days, returned to their districts and helped to develop a local plan for staff development. The state department provided the coordination, training and identification of resources districts could use to promote their work "back home."

Often a new approach to scheduling is required to conduct effective staff development. This kind of flexibility is more easily arranged in a small school setting.

Extended Year Program

From a larger suburban school district comes this idea that could work very well in small/rural locations. Community Consolidated School District No. 146 in Finley Park, Illinois gives one-fourth of the district teachers and all of the district administrators from 15 to 18 consecutive days of inservice training immediately following the close of school each summer. Teachers are paid a daily training stipend which is equivalent to each participant's regular daily teaching salary. The board of education allocates more than 1 percent of the educational fund each year to inservice training in the district. Based upon a needs assessment, the program focuses on three major topics: interpersonal relationships, teaching strategies and specific content areas of the curriculum. The extended year program was designed with the assumption that *time* is a critical factor in successful inservice training. CCSD No. 146 believes that the traditional approach to inservice education does not allow the concentrated time needed for creative change. Some of the advantages of an extended program are:

- The program is designed and carried out locally.
- Follow-up adds continuity during the school year.
- Teachers have time to work together without closing school during the school year.

Staff Development: Technology at Work

As part of their creativity and inventiveness, many districts are using media and other technology to promote staff development and enrichment. The following are examples of innovative use of technology:

Telephone Inservice

The Kansas Statewide Continuing Education Network conducts classroom instruction via two-way telephone lines into 23 Kansas communities. Voices are amplified so that the instructor and the student can converse freely. Verbal instruction is supplemented by hand-out materials.

Training by Satellite

The Appalachian Education Satellite Project attempts to bring inservice training to rural teachers in isolated areas. The Appalachian project provides four graduate level courses to teachers using NASA's ATS-6 communication satellite, at 15 sites throughout the Appalachian region, from New York to Alabama. The courses use videotaped lessons or pretaped television programs, in association with audio-transmitted review segments, laboratory sessions, unit tests and libraries of related materials. The satellite transmits the pretaped television programs and the audio-review segments. Live interaction seminars are interspersed throughout the course.

Radio Transmission

Satellite radio is used to promote teacher-to-teacher professional communication and continuing education opportunities for teachers in remote areas. In Alaska, there is a National Education Association-sponsored experiment in satellite communication. This 13-week course is accredited for three hours by the University of Alaska especially for teachers in small Alaskan villages who may have no access to other professional development activities. The National Education Association also implements the Satellite Alaska-Hawaii Association Hour (NEASAT), a bi-weekly teacher center of the air which includes such topics as "What Works for Me in the Classroom" and "Native Land Claims." Discussion questions and support material on each topic are mailed to participants in the villages well in advance of the broadcast.

Professional Development on the Road

Rural Pennsylvania, working with Pennsylvania State University, has equipped a mobile van for computer-assisted instruction. The van brings a course in special education to teachers in Pennsylvania who are unable to return to the college campus. The course, called CARE (Computer Assisted Remedial Education), enables a teacher to recognize and help children in the

regular class who have handicaps that might go undetected. The van contains a central IBM computer with 15 student terminals. It is parked at a particular school where teachers have private tutoring at a time convenient for them.

Mobile Teaching Unit

The University of Iowa Center for Educational Experimentation, Development and Evaluation sponsors a similar mobile teaching unit. The van expands into a 17x40-foot classroom accommodating 20 students. It contains computer terminals, videotape players, other audiovisual equipment, and 400 pieces of instructional material. Materials are organized for self-directed learning. Staff members check their level of knowledge with the computers and select appropriate steps in the learning process. Course materials include information on the educational abilities of various exceptional children and on the mainstreaming process, strategies and techniques for assisting handicapped children and a review of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, P.L. 94-142.

Peer Teaching as a Technique

Another creative staff development technique is peer teaching. The expert from out-of-town may not be the right resource for small/rural school districts. As an alternative, small districts might look first to individuals from their own locale who are capable of providing staff development expertise.

Training the District Team

Hastings-on-Hudson, New York, for example, trained five teachers from two schools and a high school principal as program leaders in a pilot project. In the second and third year of the project, the five teachers became trainers of other staff members in the district. Inservice training in the district is voluntary, but teachers are eligible for inservice credit. Teachers who complete the course learn: 1) to group students heterogeneously so they can teach each other; 2) to observe and be observed by their trainers and their peers; and 3) to develop units on vocabulary, reading comprehension and patterns of organization. In addition to improving students' reading in the content areas, the teachers will gain personal skills to enhance communication among faculty members within the school district.

Local Communication Leaders

Improved communication was the greatest need identified by teachers and administrators in Maine's school district No. 51 during a staff development needs assessment. Instead of calling in an outside expert, the committee decided to train a team of the district's teachers in group dynamics, problem identification and brainstorming techniques. The trained teachers then returned to their local schools to work with fellow teachers on defining their communication concerns. On a staff development day the participants drew up plans to improve their communication. As the year progressed, the staff development committee sponsored many activities to facilitate communication on a district level. As a culminating event, all staff members were invited to attend a districtwide field day and barbecue. The superintendent cooked breakfast. A districtwide dinner-dance was held. Teachers made a concerted effort to send positive notes home to parents.

Cooperation Among Districts

Joint efforts among districts also can solve staff development problems in rural and small systems where the individual district staffs are small.

15 Rural Districts Establish Inservice Center

Southeastern Colorado is a sparsely settled agricultural and ranching area. Teachers and administrators in the area felt that they had to find a better way to provide for the professional growth of staff members. Not only were the classes offered at the closest University not suitable for their needs, but the 200-mile drive to the institution was burdensome as well. Therefore, 15 districts formed the Southeastern Colorado Educational Renewal Center to serve the 400 teachers and administrators in the area. The center was approved by the Colorado Department of Education to offer recertification credit. The center runs a one-week summer session in June and a second in August.

The offerings fall into two categories: 1) horizon expanding courses such as history of the area, administrative renewal and arts and crafts in the classroom; and 2) skill building courses such as reading, classroom management and discipline. Two basic requirements of all courses taught by the center are that the courses be practical and authoritative.

Potential course instructors must conduct a one-hour trial lesson in front of other instructors. Several of the center's instructors are not educators. For example, a district court judge who handles juvenile cases teaches a course on Colorado's child abuse law. Courses taken during the summer lead to staff development activities during the school year. In addition, a course is offered during the winter. Activities range from a physical fitness course to discussions by a minister on the power of positive thinking.

Some National Attention

Small and rural districts also can take advantage of tried and tested programs that work. Some are known nationally, while others may be less well known.

A National Network

The National Diffusion Network (NDN) is a federally funded program that enables schools to improve their educational offerings by helping them "adopt" more than 160 exemplary NDN projects. NDN makes it possible to select programs that seem appropriate and meet a district's identified needs. NDN projects appeal to teachers because most of them were developed by classroom teachers who had a good idea about how to solve a classroom problem. The most important aspects of the project adoption are teacher and administrative commitment and the inservice training that is provided with each adoption. For more information about the NDN or a listing of NDN facilitators and projects, contact the Division of Educational Replication, U.S. Department of Education, Room 3616, 7th and D Streets, SW, Washington, DC 20201. (Phone: 202/245-2243)

Resources for Staff Development

Margaret Arbuckle and *Daryl Hahn*, Maine Staff Development Network, State Department of Education and Cultural Services, Augusta, Maine 04333, have written a very practical "how to" booklet entitled, *Guide to School Improvement and Staff Development*. (Phone: 207/289-3451)

The National Academy for School Executives (NASE), The American Association of School Administrators, 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, VA. 22209, offers workshops and seminars and custom training programs to administrators and teachers. Seminar schedules and information on contract programs are available on request. (Phone: 703/528-0700.)

Hampshire Educational Collaborative of Massachusetts, 137 Russell, Hadley, MA 01035, has published a guide entitled *Helping Teachers Become Inservice Facilitators*. (Phone: 413/586-4590.)

National Council of States on Inservice Education, Syracuse University, 123 Huntington Hall, Syracuse, NY 13210, is a good resource, particularly in relation to questions of staff development policy. (Phone: 315/423-4164)

National Inservice Network, Indiana University, 2853 E. 10th St., Bloomington, IN. 47405, has over 30 publications covering a wide variety of staff development topics. (Phone: 812/337-2734)

The National Staff Development Council, 5198 Westgate Drive, Oxford, OH 45056, published an excellent newsletter containing practical ideas and guidance in staff development. (Phone: 513/523-6029)

Summary

Staff development is the small school district's key to survival in the 1980's. Although small and rural districts may face problems like isolation and limited resources, they have distinct advantages too. Small and rural districts often provide for close contact between teachers and administrators, have strong ties to the local community, and are able to set staff development goals that effectively meet community expectations and student and teacher needs. Staff development should be viewed as a planned system for educational and personal experiences, which can occur on the district level, at the building level, or on an individual basis. In order to be successful, staff development program designers must understand that when adults learn, they prefer to prescribe their own objectives and activities; bring diverse knowledge and skills to the staff development situation; are generally self-motivated; and work best in an informal environment where respect and trust are evident. A good staff development program for small and rural schools involves the participants in the planning, sets clear objectives, is supported by the administration and school board members, is based on assessed needs, and accommodates individual differences. Some steps for getting started in small and rural districts include: 1) identifying several staff members to design a districtwide needs assessment; 2) developing a plan that includes objectives, activities, a timeline, and evaluation criteria; and, 3) sharing the plan with the staff for their suggestions before beginning. Some of the common pitfalls to avoid are one-time activities without follow-up, the use of outside experts when local people might be enlisted, emphasizing theory rather than practice, and insufficient administrator commitment. Many small school districts have designed creative staff development programs that can serve as models. These include plans where staff members write their own staff development "individual education plans;" innovative assistance from state departments of education; creative scheduling; special uses of technology such as satellite broadcasting and mobile training vans; peer teaching; and joint efforts among several small school districts.

Small and rural school districts have proven that outstanding staff development can be provided. A number of resources are available, including the National Academy of School Executives at the American Association of School Administrators, the National Council of States on Inservice Education at Syracuse University, the National Inservice Network at Indiana University, and the National Staff Development Council in Oxford, Ohio.

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Your Staff Must Learn Decision Processes

BY THOMAS E. PERSING
Superintendent, Upper Perkiomen School District, East Greenville, Pennsylvania

The ability to decide wisely makes or breaks leaders. Of equal or even greater importance is the ability to choose the correct decision-making process.

Virtually all decisions fall into four categories. An organization's integrity rests on everyone's understanding of these four types and their uses.

The first type of decision is made at the level of organizational impact. If a school is being renovated, for example, the faculty committee should decide in which building wing each grade or department will be located. This type of decision should be arrived at democratically by majority vote.

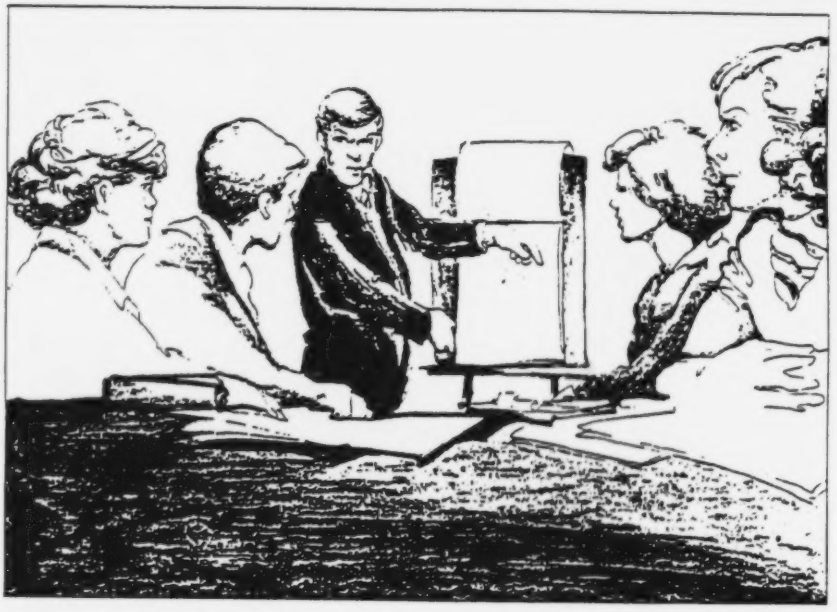
The leader, as the facilitator, provides resources and data and raises questions to clarify issues and determine conflicting alternatives. The leader will accept, without modification, the results of the decision. Furthermore, the leader must support the decision both privately and publicly.

In the second type of decision, the leader will ask for input and discuss its rationale and consequences. The leader will help shape and form consensus.

In this type of decision making, the leader encourages discussion and participative management. A principal might lead the faculty in deciding how to arrange effectively the teaching day into blocks of time for instruction and extracurricular activities, for example.

Finally, the principal will make the decision, communicate the rationale to the faculty, and assume responsibility.

The third decision-making category is one in which the leader will make the decisions based on what he or she perceives to be in the organization's best interest. Input is requested, but organizational members must understand that their input may not affect the decision.



An example might be a superintendent determining the budget for the coming fiscal year. The new budget might favorably or adversely affect the programming requests of the director of curriculum, the director of personnel, principals, teachers, and maintenance personnel. The leader should shoulder full responsibility for the outcome.

The last type of decision is a command decision. When a building is on fire or a bus accident occurs, the leader issues orders that are not discussed, they are simply obeyed. Decisions are made and orders are issued instantaneously. Unfortunately, sometimes this type of decision process is used in the wrong situation with serious consequences.

Very serious morale, credibility, and trust problems can occur if the leader and organizational members do not know what type of decision is being made and what role each person must play in the decision-making process.

All have heard the ubiquitous complaint, "They asked for my input but it wasn't even considered when the decision was made," or, "I'm not serving on any other committee, we gave our recommendation and it was ignored."

If all organizational members realize how their input will be used in making a decision, problems could very well be prevented.

Reprinted with permission from The Regional Laboratory. Excerpted from Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development. Susan Loucks-Horsley, Catherine Harding, Margaret Arbuckle, Lynn Murray, Cynthia Dubea and Martha Williams. Andover, MA, and Oxford, OH: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands and the National Staff Development Council. Available from The Regional Laboratory, 290 South Main Street, Andover, MA 01810, (508) 470-0098.

2

Critical Attributes of Effective Teacher Development Programs

Teacher development is a complex process whose success depends upon both a favorable context for learning and practical, engaging activities. Availability of resources, flexible working conditions, support, and recognition can make all the difference in the desire of teachers to refine their practice. Similarly, staff development experiences that build on collegiality, collaboration, discovery, and solving real problems of teaching and learning summon the strength within a staff, instead of just challenging them to measure up to somebody else's standard. The focal point for staff development is the individual, working with others, trying to do the best possible job of educating children. When staff development emphasizes an idea or an approach without considering the person(s) who will implement it, the design and results are weakened.

Since staff development and school improvement efforts are personal experiences shaped by the players and circumstances involved, they belie tidy recipes for success. They are more than just training designs; they are the net result of planning, trial and error, assessing results, and sustaining commitment to improvements. Yet we can identify certain characteristics that underlie most, if not all, successful change efforts. These relate to both the climate for growth in a school and the activities pursued in the name of professional development. Figure 1 lists these characteristics, and the following elaboration shows how each plays out in staff development programs.

These attributes of successful staff development consider the learner(s), the challenge, the reward, and the difference a program or process can make. They are not ordered or tightly integrated as factors, but the absence of any one of them has the power to sink the ship. Together they support and sustain a community of learners.

In talking about staff development as a collective set of experiences involving both individuals and the context in which they work, the

notion of collegiality and collaboration is a good place to start.

Collegiality and Collaboration

Pointing to the need for collaborative staff development in schools, Carl Glickman (1986) refers to the "one room school" syndrome. It's a tradition of isolationism created long ago when teachers literally worked alone in one room schools. While we have increased personnel, we have not always connected staff in schools for purposes of sharing expertise, solving problems, and pursuing improvement. Creating collegial or collaborative relationships is a vital strategy for supporting individual and organizational change.

Collegiality is more than congeniality; it means connecting on a professional level with other school staff, looking for new ideas, advice, a forum to test models of teaching (Little, 1982; Lortie, 1975). Collaboration relates to mutual problem solving, assuming that multiple perspectives are better than single ones. It can increase collective understanding, strengthen a sense of common mission, and buoy individuals who might otherwise be swamped by the demands of facing children alone in the classroom.

In a school where collegiality and collaboration are norms, the staff recognizes its resourcefulness. Teachers and administrators understand teaching to be a craft, actively learned on the job and eminently worth talking about. They build a common language about teaching, with the focus on practice rather than on teachers or students (Lieberman, 1986). In such settings, teachers as well as administrators are actively involved in planning as well as participating in staff development experiences. The principal models collegiality by engaging in activities rather than just sanctioning them. The collective enterprise of staff development removes the stigma from an individual's improvement activities. Everyone has something to learn, and everyone can benefit from another's experience.

Figure 1

Characteristics of Successful Staff Development Programs

Collegiality and collaboration

Experimentation and risk taking

Incorporation of available knowledge bases

Appropriate participant involvement in goal setting, implementation, evaluation, and decision making

Time to work on staff development and assimilate new learnings

Leadership and sustained administrative support

Appropriate incentives and rewards

Designs built on principles of adult learning and the change process

Integration of individual goals with school and district goals

Formal placement of the program within the philosophy and organizational structure of the school and district

Experimentation and Risk Taking

A recent article on professional growth notes that one of the major misconceptions about teaching, found both inside and outside the profession, is that teaching is a relatively commonplace, easy-to-learn task (Wildman & Niles, 1987). This attitude leads people to believe that teachers are either born mysteriously into the profession or hatched in teacher education programs. What this perspective ignores is the complexity of learning to teach real kids in imperfect environments.

Methods may be starting points, but they don't cover the tremendous range of classroom situations and responses from students. Teachers constantly adjust their techniques and goals as they work. The classroom is a living laboratory, requiring experimentation and risks, moving from comfortable frames of reference to breaking new ground.

The ability to take these risks necessary to teach well, and to find support in failure as well as in success, demands a trusting environment for learning. For teachers as well as for students, trying something new often means initially experiencing discomfort. It may mean getting worse before getting better. The perseverance needed to get beyond adequate performance to efficient, graceful form can be staggering. Teachers need

to feel comfortable with their discomfort, knowing that they are supported in their growth.

Incorporation of Available Knowledge Bases

Saphier and King (1985) write:

> There are generic knowledge bases about teaching skills and how students learn; about teaching methods in particular areas; about young people's cognitive and affective development; and about each of the academic disciplines. These knowledge bases are practical, accessible, and very large. Teachers and supervisors are continually reaching out to them to improve their teaching and supervision (p. 2).

While most agree that there are indeed substantial knowledge bases from which teachers can draw, we have seen few indications that most teachers do, as Saphier and King claim. For whatever reasons—and there are many that are not the fault of teachers—what is known from research and sound practice is *not* fed continuously into classroom practice (Huberman, 1983). But it is an important element of strong professional development programs. While curiosity and eagerness to learn more effective ways of teaching characterize the openness in the teaching profession, good staff development takes advantage of this curiosity and promotes disciplined inquiry into important areas of teaching and learning.

Knowledge useful to teachers may be documented in research or validated in model programs and practices; both sources inform teaching. The strongest position sees teachers contributing to as well as using knowledge bases. If knowledge is something somebody else has and there's no bridging to or extending beyond it, then the learner remains removed and passive.

Research and model practices can stimulate reflection, discussion, and a desire to improve. They can provide guidance and direction for changing practice in ways that increase student learning. They should not, however, be used as a definition of how all teachers must behave in the classroom (Good & Weinstein, 1986) or as a cure-all for perceived deficiencies in the profession (Zumwalt, 1986). As Zumwalt says, "the potential of research to improve education does not come by generating rules of practice but rather from informing the deliberations of teachers and from encouraging similar inquiry from them (p. 2)."

Appropriate Participant Involvement in Goal Setting, Implementation, Evaluation, and Decision Making

Teachers are always involved in their own development, but the degree to which they are invested in their own and their system's improvement is often limited. Many times teachers are enrolled in workshops that supervisors deem necessary. They neither engage in the question of need nor the search for viable solutions. When the time comes to evaluate a training workshop, it is the content they are asked to evaluate; rarely are they given an opportunity to validate the appropriateness of the program given their knowledge, their experience, and their questions about student learning. Furthermore, they contribute little to the application of the practice in their classrooms—the tailoring that is so necessary if such practices are to foster improvements.

This is staff development in spite of the participants rather than for them. It also misses an opportunity to enlist teachers in the development of the school and district.

Good staff development recognizes the validity of the individual as well as the community to which that person belongs. It seeks to engage participants in as many decision points as possible. Yet it acknowledges that the teacher's major purpose is to teach students, not to serve on committees and respond to questionnaires and surveys seeking input and involvement in every decision being made. Thus effective professional development programs vary the kinds of involvement they seek from individual teachers, depending on the goals and the approaches taken.

Sometimes teachers share responsibility for planning, implementing, and evaluating staff development activities. Other times individuals assess their own needs, identify goals, arrange activities, evaluate their learning, and plan for another cycle of development. Still other times teachers participate in training arranged by a committee or a concerned administrator. While such training may be voluntary, there are also cases where participation is mandatory. In such case, success relies on the care with which the particular training was chosen (i.e., that it fits the improvement needs of teachers), the ability of the trainer or presenter to relate to the classroom realities of the participants and allow for reflection on the best applications, the soundness of the content being presented, and the amount of help and support available to teachers to implement the new practices.

Research and practice have shown that, even when teachers are not involved in decisions leading up to a training program, they can develop

strong commitment to use of the new ideas when there are clear, observable benefits to their students (Crandall, 1983; Guskey, 1986). Here, teacher involvement in tailoring a new practice to their own situations gives them an opportunity to establish a relevance for themselves and the context in which they work.

Any time staff development opportunities ignore the importance of involvement by participants, one can expect only hit-or-miss results.

Time to Work on Staff Development and Assimilate New Learnings

Time is both a necessity and a limitation to teacher development. As we have said, learning to teach continues throughout a person's career and requires constant analysis, reflection, experimentation, and support from colleagues. Unfortunately, most school schedules and calendars do not leave time for individual or collective reflection. Without such time, schools cannot encourage investigation or disciplined inquiry into teaching. Neither do they reward those exemplary few who research, write, coach, or collaborate.

Good professional development programs support the necessity of reflective teaching, believing that teachers will be more professional if they keep striving to know their craft better. Doctors and lawyers are expected to stay current and learn new ways of approaching problems; likewise teachers should be supported in their expansion of knowledge and skill. If we want teachers to impart children with powers to think and evaluate information, we must sanction the same inquiry on their part.

If teachers are not engaged in learning, then the price we pay for their limited knowledge is higher than most people realize. It takes time to learn—time to watch, practice, commit to changes, and work them smoothly into one's routine. Time buys new organizational arrangements that can support teacher development, such as limiting the difficulty of teaching assignments for new teachers, reducing teaching loads of advising teachers, hiring more staff or teaming the staff available to cover the classes of teachers released from teaching, and allocating more time for staff development during the school year or beyond the current ten-month year. "Finding more time for teacher growth obviously involves increased costs, but time-efficient staff development efforts that do not produce teacher learning are clearly not cost-effective (Wildman & Niles, 1987, p. 2)."

Another issue related to time is the need for stability and continuity to be built into a staff development program. Constant introduction of new

programs, change for the sake of change, instability in goals, staff, or funding—all of these are apt to create a climate in which new ideas come and go, nothing takes root, and teachers experience continual frustration. A good staff development program balances the infusion of the new with time to effectively implement approaches that have already been introduced.

Leadership and Sustained Administrative Support

Leadership and support from key school leaders, usually administrators, is critical to the success of staff development efforts (Loucks-Horsley & Hergert, 1985). Traditional leaders such as superintendents and principals have an important role in legitimizing and maintaining these efforts. They can choose to orchestrate and direct staff development themselves or delegate leadership to curriculum supervisors, department heads, team leaders, or staff development teams.

When administrators delegate operational functions of staff development to teams or supervisors, they still can support staff development by promoting the activities, focusing the work, helping with the selection of players, providing time and resources, and incorporating the results of staff development into teacher and school evaluation. Beyond these indirect support strategies, administrators can show they value staff development by participating in meetings and helping to select training activities. They can show moral support by verbal praise and encouragement, publication of teacher accomplishments, and bringing coffee and muffins to planning meetings.

It is important to note that new leaders emerge from improvement activities. Those who gain a new perspective on teaching can become vital players in the school improvement game. They may assume leadership roles in training others in new techniques or assisting a peer in adapting a strategy; or they may help a superintendent explain a program change to the community or school board. The roles of instructional leadership are not exclusive, and the more people in the education community who can take on leadership roles, the more likely their sense of commitment and responsibility will lead to real school improvement.

Appropriate Incentives and Rewards

People can be rewarded in many different ways. Good staff development systems pay attention to incentives and rewards; they have formal reward structures in place, with options and opportunities available so

that an individual can decide what is rewarding. Extrinsic rewards such as pay increases or working in a nice facility count with teachers, but intrinsic rewards count more. Teachers are motivated by opportunities to meet new people, share ideas and work together, increase knowledge and competence, and take time to think, talk, and figure out alternative teaching strategies.

Mastery of a new skill is a strong reward as well as a motivator for continuing to use and refine a new approach. Doing something new well can greatly increase teachers' commitment to new approaches, whether or not they were committed when the new approach was first introduced (Crandall, 1983).

All of these rewards assume *recognition, respect,* and *reinforcement*—the three Rs of job satisfaction that are particularly important incentives for teachers (Jacullo-Noto, 1986). If problems such as inconvenient times and locations and forced participation are avoided, such extrinsic incentives as money, credit, or materials, while certainly appreciated, are not necessary for teacher involvement in and commitment to improvement activities. Professional growth is itself a reward. And probably the most powerful motivator is simply a sense of efficacy—a belief that what one does makes a difference (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978).

Designs Built on Principles of Adult Learning and the Change Process

Solid professional development programs take into account what is known about adult learning. They acknowledge that adults learn differently than children. Thus, an understanding of *andragogy,* the teaching of adults, is needed.

Studies of adult development (Krupp, 1981; Oja, 1980) and of how adults learn best indicate several conditions necessary for adult growth. These include

- opportunities to try out new practices;
- careful and continuous guided reflection and discussion about the proposed changes;
- continuity of programs and time for significant change; and
- personal support as well as challenge during this change process (Sprinthall & Sprinthall, 1983).

Training designs that reflect these conditions include the following:

- study of the theory or rationale for the desired teaching method or change;
- observation of demonstrations of the practice;
- discussion of application;
- practice and feedback; and
- coaching for application in the work setting (Joyce & Showers, 1982; Sparks, 1983).

If most staff development programs aim to change the behavior of teachers, as we believe they do, then attention to what is known about the change process can also make staff development more successful. A useful frame of reference is provided by the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM), which describes how individuals develop in their feelings and skills as they are introduced to and implement something new. When staff developers know "where people are" in the change process, they can tailor their help and support to teachers' developmental levels (Hall & Loucks, 1978).

For example, when teachers (and others) engage in a new practice, their concerns about the practice change, as does their skill in using it. When first considering a change, the most dominant concerns are self-oriented—"What is it, and how will it affect me?" Later, concerns change to wanting to master the new practice, to getting coordinated and organized to use it comfortably. Finally, when the practice has been mastered, concerns are focused more on how it is affecting students and how it can be changed to have greater impact.

Good planners keep the notion of changing concerns in mind as they design staff development activities. They make sure teachers have the opportunity to resolve their concerns as they emerge, providing answers to the questions teachers are asking when they are most salient. For example, early in the process teachers are more likely to want to know what a new practice will look like in their classrooms and what the expectations of administrators are, rather than wanting focused training in how-to-do-it or in evaluating student outcomes. A common mistake of staff developers is to design activities related to *their* concerns, rather than the concerns of teachers, and their concerns are often quite different.

If change is a process, then another application of change process research is providing sufficient time, attention, and assistance for new ideas and skills to take hold. Hunter (1985) has aptly labelled as "creative floundering" the unstable period of trial and error during which participants in staff development are practicing, receiving feedback, adjusting, and practicing again. Getting through this period successfully requires considerable time. As Loucks-Horsley and Hergert (1985) observe, implementing and mastering any new practice requires more than a one or two day "hit and run" workshop and a cheerful, "God bless you." Learning and applying new concepts and skills do not occur overnight. One-time training sessions—regardless of the length—are rarely sufficient.

Staff development is most influential when it is conducted often enough and long enough to ensure progressive gains in knowledge, skill, and confidence (Little, 1986). If, as Crandall (1983) and Guskey (1986) claim, change in teacher attitudes and beliefs occurs *after* teachers have had a chance to practice strategies with their students and see the results, then follow-up after training is even more crucial than the training activity itself. Such support over time builds the commitment, shared understanding, and collegiality characteristic of successful staff development efforts.

Integration of Individual Goals with School and District Goals

A good staff development program is like an umbrella: it takes into account all that is under its protection. It considers the goals of individual teachers as well as those of the school and the district, and it works hard to integrate these into a whole.

Demands on schools and teachers come in many forms and from many places. Responding to these can be piecemeal or planned. In places where staff development works to support growth and development, the needs stimulated by these demands are incorporated into an overall plan. As with all professionals, when it comes to their own development, teachers have both privileges and responsibilities. They can choose ways of satisfying their growth needs, as well as participate in activities to further the improvement of their school and district. A good staff development program maximizes the extent to which these two are integrated and the extent to which teachers have influence over their integration.

Formal Placement of the Program Within the Philosophy and Organizational Structure of the School and District

Formal establishment of defined mechanisms that promote staff development, such as district-level inservice coordinating committees and school-based planning teams, protects collaborative planning and increases the likelihood that improvement activities will continue over time. In districts or schools that do not develop such structures, planning and management of improvement are dependent upon a few energetic individuals; they often cease altogether if those individuals move on to other things or districts. Different activities and strategies come and go, with no glue to hold them together and ensure continuity. Only if staff development is embedded in the philosophy and organizational structure of schools and districts can a culture of continuous growth thrive.

How this can happen, and how such a system can incorporate the other attributes of successful professional development programs, is discussed at length in the next chapter.

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Special Feature

LINDA LAMBERT

Staff Development

The End of an Era of Staff Development

Staff development should not place teachers in a passive learning role but should encompass a broad range of professional growth opportunities.

We have come to the end of an era. Staff development as we have known it has proven ineffective and limiting. To usher in a new era, we need a new vision of staff development—one that challenges and involves teachers in the honoring and creation of their own knowledge.

The Beginning of the Era

The present era of staff development began more than 15 years ago when we began to see the teacher as an adult learner. This "revolutionary" insight coincided with an increase in knowledge about adult learning (Lambert 1983). We learned that cognitive development does not peak in late adolescence, plateau, and then decline. Indeed, cognitive complexity continues to develop—or has the potential to do so—throughout one's life, even into late adulthood (Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall 1983).

We realized then that teachers had not necessarily given the best years of their lives to preservice. There was hope for a lifetime of learning on the job. Therefore, our modest attempts at inservice—one-shot inspirational speakers or an occasional conference in subject matter—fell far short of addressing our needs for systematic learning about teaching.

So *inservice* gave way to *staff development*. As excellent teachers, we sought this challenge. We became expert in skills we could teach to our colleagues. We became the new breed of trainers: staff developers. Lacking an articulated knowledge base of our own, we turned to research for answers to our questions: What is good teaching? What does it look like? How do we know when we're doing it? Can we teach it to others? Can we model it for others?

Enter stage left, Madeline Hunter (1979), followed by David Berliner (1984). We listened. What we heard rang true: there are effective elements of good instruction. As teachers, we had known that. Now we had our knowledge base—at least our first important piece of it. Our new knowledge also gave us direction in how to deliver this information to adults. After all, good instruction is good instruction. Armed with our discrete skills and training manuals, we forged ahead.

By the late '70s we were defining staff development as learning about a new skill and transferring that skill to the classroom.

Enter stage right, Bruce Joyce and this thing called "coaching" (Joyce and Showers 1983). Joyce told us that if skills are to be tranferred to the classroom, there must be more than telling and showing. We needed modeling, practice, and feedback. Again, this made sense.

By the late '70s we were defining staff development as learning about a new skill and transferring that skill to the classroom. Thus we had our premiere model for staff development (Joyce and Showers 1980):

- presentation of theory,
- demonstration of skill,
- protected practice,
- practice,
- feedback,
- coaching.

In most quarters, this definition still stands today (California Study of Staff Development 1987, ASCD 1985).

Direct Instruction Drawbacks

Meanwhile, our investigation of "effective schools"—elementary schools successful with low-ability students as measured by standardized tests—confirmed the work of Hunter and Berliner

the most successful schools used more direct instruction.

In the more-than-10 years since the effective schools movement began, however, we have learned some disturbing things about this model of instruction:

- With direct instruction, students tend to do slightly better on achievement tests initially but do slightly worse on tests of abstract thinking, creativity, and problem solving (Peterson 1979, Glickman 1979).
- Students with an internal locus of control who take responsibility for their own learning do worse with direct instruction, while students with an external locus of control do better (Wright and DeCetter 1976).
- High-achieving, task-oriented students do worse in direct instruction than in less direct approaches (Ebmeier and Good 1979, Solomon and Kendall 1976).
- After three years of predominant use of direct instruction, achievement scores plateau and begin to decline (Robbins and Wolfe 1987).

Similar findings have been reported around the country (Robbins 1987, Stallings 1987). These findings raise serious doubts about direct instruction for children. Of course, direct instruction still has an important role to play in the classroom; but if it is the centerpiece of the learning experience, it gets in the way of human development.

Yet, despite our knowledge of the drawbacks of direct instruction, the premiere model of staff development for adults is in many ways *parallel to the direct instruction model for students* (see fig. 1).

This preferred staff development approach reflects many misconceptions about adult learning:

- Adult learning is an *outside-in* rather than an *inside-out* process.
- Teachers as learners are conduits; they do not perceive, translate, or construct knowledge.
- Changes in discrete behaviors will improve decision making and thereby enable teachers to make continuous and informed decisions as they teach.
- Craft knowledge and experience are not necessarily valid.
- Choice is limited by indisputable research about "right" practice.
- Growth and development occur solely as functions of pedagogical practices.

Fig. 1. Parallels Between Staff Development and Direct Instruction

Direct Instruction Model	Staff Development Model
input	presentation of theory
modeling	demonstration
guided practice	protected practice
independent practice	practice
more guided practice	feedback and coaching

Why have these false assumptions endured so long? If we eagerly accepted the new knowledge about adult learning, why did we adopt a model whose assumptions deny the most basic tenets of adult learning? The reason, I believe, is that staff development has been nestled in the promise of collegiality.

The Lure of Collegiality

The merits of collegiality have been well established (Bird and Little 1983, Little 1982, Lieberman 1982, Kent 1985, McNergney and Carrier 1981, Zahorik 1987). Collegial practice expands cognitive complexity, leads to thoughtful planning and reflective practice, and increases teachers' satisfaction with their work.

Teachers consistently report that the power and attraction of staff development lies in the opportunity to talk to other teachers (George 1986). "Collegiality" was seductive and satisfying to teachers; the more we could make it happen, the more pleased we were with our staff development activities. We conspired with our colleagues in the passive process of receiving knowledge. Technical coaching became a collegial practice for "oiling" the pipeline of passivity. If the new learning wasn't a "take," we pointed the finger at the lack of practice and coaching (Robbins and Wolfe 1987). We began to speculate about the vast number of trials needed for transfer of a new skill to occur. If we would just tell teachers more and longer, we believed, they'd finally learn the new skill. We didn't question the "telling."

In playing a passive role in staff development, teachers failed to take charge of their own profession. And we staff developers unwittingly colluded with arthritic bureaucracies to keep teachers from questioning and demanding more of the system. We have not challenged teachers to inquire, criticize, participate, or create. Instead, we have perpetuated the paternalistic system that reinforces schooling-as-usual; we have taught teachers to accept the system as it is, concede that

The premiere model of staff development for adults is in many ways parallel to the direct instruction model for students.

valid knowledge lies outside their day-to-day world, and focus exclusively on the students (without balanced attention to developing oneself, one's colleagues, and the profession).

Involving the Learner

If we acknowledge the inadequacies of the era of staff development in which the learner is the recipient of expert knowledge, what must we do to usher in a new era? We must redesign staff development to involve and empower the learner. Because we have insisted on "telling" teachers how to improve, the staff development community has had limited influence on the profession. Instead of persisting in this error, we should encourage teachers to do what they have not done:

- talk about their own thinking and teaching, instead of just about materials, discipline, activities, and individualization for students;
- initiate change in the school environment;
- contribute to the knowledge base of the profession;
- enculturate new teachers in the positive-practice and self-directing norms of teaching;
- share in the leadership of schools;
- foster teachers' union commitment to improving the profession, especially at the local level;
- help to design the restructuring of schooling;
- design new or expanded roles for themselves;
- actively and cooperatively improve the societal image of teaching as a profession.

If we would just tell teachers more and longer, we believed, they'd finally learn the new skill. We didn't question the "telling."

Opportunities to Learn

When teachers engage in reflective practice, collegiality, and shared leadership, they come to understand themselves and their work differently. This new understanding causes a shift in their beliefs and norms. This shift, in turn, creates new opportunities, new visions of what can be done. The new professional development is a cultural, not a delivery, concept.

This cycle of professional development requires taking advantage of the rich and varied opportunities to learn that are available in schools. These opportunities are numerous: when teachers participate in decisions, redefine their roles, reflect on their own competence, converse with peers, advocate new programs or schedules, pose questions about their work, or give guidance to new teachers, thereby eliciting and articulating their own knowledge.

Such a view incorporates the dimensions of empowerment: options, choice, authority, and responsibility (Freire 1970, Champoux 1984, Lambert 1983, Lightfoot 1987, Benveniste 1987, Marshall 1985). These emancipatory elements are described below.

Options. Awareness that options exist—in roles, tasks, career, use of time, relationships, strategies, curriculum—unleashes a sense of liberation or personal power in the individual.

Choice. Awareness of options must be accompanied by the freedom to choose among them; a teacher has no options without the power of choice. By exercising choice, teachers move from a passive to an active role. However, one choice may be the conscious decision not to exercise an option.

Authority. Teachers who take an active role need authority both inside and outside the classroom. They need to share in power and leadership. The sharing of authority means the sharing of responsibility. It also means redefining the role of the teacher.

Responsibility. Professional development means developing the profession as well as oneself. Each teacher is responsible for contributing to the redesign of schooling to better meet the needs of all concerned, sharing in the enculturation of new teachers, and contributing to the knowledge base of the profession.

District Actions

In a professional environment that highly values these empowering elements, teachers engage in a broad range of professional growth opportunities. Many school districts in Marin County, California, for example, are dedicated to developing inquiring systems. Over the past four years, these districts have refocused decision-making authority and the source of knowledge about teaching by:

- working with schools and staffs to schedule time for teachers to work together;
- providing clerical, para-professional, and technological support for teachers;
- providing discretionary funds for innovation, experimentation, and research—and providing teachers with authority over the use of those funds;
- supporting teacher-designed and district-designed roles—researcher, advisor, university liaison, curriculum specialist, leadership team member—to expand areas of expertise and extend authority;
- eliminating exclusive reliance on administrative judgments and assisting and promoting teacher self-evaluation;
- seeking and insisting on nonconfrontational bargaining to engender "win-win" working relationships;
- sharing decisions at all levels with staff—virtually eliminating distrust and incapacity to act.

We have not challenged teachers to inquire, criticize, participate, or create.

- providing ombudsman services by teacher leaders to other districts, universities, professional organizations, the state department, and business;
- removing unnecessary bureaucratic rules such as policies that centralize all decisions on resources.

A New Role for Staff Developers

If teachers become proactive participants who assume responsibility for professionalizing teaching, will the staff developer—as well as staff development—become obsolete? Absolutely not! In this new vision of staff development, the staff developer and the principal become "systems facilitators," with additional skills and additional functions. The new staff developer will assist professionals to:

- inquire into and reflect upon practice,
- elicit and share craft knowledge,
- identify and create options for learning,
- lead and work collaboratively,
- learn about new developments in the profession,
- design school and district systems that open opportunities and encourage participation.

A New Social Contract

Can we as staff developers enter into a new social contract with our professional peers? I believe we can, because of the changes we have already made. We have created roles for ourselves, we have assumed authority over a new realm, we have taken responsibility for an ever-widening arena of adult learning activities, we have talked among ourselves and sought information when and where we needed it. We have become smarter . . . and wiser. From the vantage of our own engagement with multiple opportunities for learning, can we now do less with others?□

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SECTION 2

SUCCESSFUL STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES AT THE DISTRICT AND SCHOOL LEVEL

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Staff Development on Saturdays in Hibbing, Minnesota

by Robert W. Richburg and John M. Drazenovich

In staff development, as in other areas of life, adversity often spawns creative inventions. In this article we will describe how one school system overcame the problems of geographic remoteness and limited resources through the implementation of a Saturday staff development program.

The Problem

The Hibbing Public Schools is a small, but staff development-conscious school district, in a remote part of northern Minnesota. The nearest universities are more than 75 miles away. Minneapolis/St. Paul, with all that such a major metropolitan area has to offer in the way of professional stimulation and renewal for teachers, is 200 miles away. We are close to hunting, fishing and canoeing, but, like many smaller districts, we are far removed from the mainstream when it comes to opportunities for professional growth.

The Hibbing Public Schools are not a particularly affluent district either. School districts with larger budgets can overcome their geographic isolation by simply committing more resources to enable their teachers and administrators to attend workshops and conferences. Even paying for substitutes in order to free our staff for in-district released-time programs is prohibitively expensive for us. This is occasionally done, but no more often than is absolutely necessary. Besides being expensive, it removes our teachers from their classrooms, and no one, including the teachers who are being freed for training, wants that.

Our master contract adds to the difficulty of scheduling meaningful staff development activities by limiting us to 3 paid non-student contact days throughout the year. Included in this meager allotment must be the superintendent's opening day "win one for the Gipper" talk, the usual discussion of changes in medical, dental, and other insurance coverages, and the like. This leaves only a few hours for providing awareness sessions about new teaching materials and techniques.

In desperation, we considered short inservice sessions before or after the teaching day. A couple of afternoon workshops were actually tried — with predictable results. The staff was tired after school and their attention span was non-existent. The sessions had to be limited to only 20 to 30 minutes because the contract day ends at 3:00 and time after that must be at extra pay.

Before school sessions were even worse. Every teacher has important things to do to get ready for the school day. Anything but very low-level informational sessions were out of the question with no time at all for reflection or interaction.

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The Solution

In 1985, at one of the regularly-scheduled administrator brainstorming sessions, the idea of an elective Saturday inservice program was very tentatively suggested. At first the idea did not seem to have merit. After all, who would come on Saturday after a long week of teaching? As the discussion continued, however, some possibilities began to emerge. If staff could be lured out on Saturday through some sort of attractive incentives, there certainly would be more time to explore topics in depth. Obviously, subs are not needed for Saturdays, so costs could be lessened. Also, teachers don't have to spend extra time making detailed plans for substitutes. Finally, teachers are fresher and more able to be reflective on a Saturday morning than after a long school day.

But what kind of incentives would motivate attendance on a Saturday, especially in a region where outdoor recreation presents such strong competition for staff weekends? Clearly there are many arguments against paying teachers for Saturday staff development — not the least of which would be prohibitive cost. A combination of incentives involving "lane change" credits on the salary schedule, possible graduate credit from one of the state universities, and recertification units were suggested as possibilities.

Some of the more respected teachers on our staff who have special expertise would conduct some of the workshops. These teachers would certainly grow from reflecting on and sharing with their peers the good things they were doing in their classrooms.

As the discussion continued, the idea began to gel. The district might sponsor a practical, teaching methods-oriented, elective Saturday institute. The staff would be surveyed for the workshop topics they wanted. The administration would also be asked to suggest topics. Some of the more respected teachers on our staff who have special expertise would conduct some of the workshops. These teachers would certainly grow from reflecting on and sharing with their peers the good things they were

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Saturday Staff Development cont. from page 3

doing in their classrooms. Outside consultants with strong reputations would also be sought if their fees were affordable.

A major concern was voiced as this Saturday program took form: How do you increase the likelihood that the things learned would actually be implemented in teachers' classrooms? A decision was made that teachers who participated would be asked to do a significant application project. To receive credit, a teacher would develop and teach a unit which focused on the technique or teaching procedure taught in the workshop. This project would have to be verified by another teacher or administrator.

To receive credit, a teacher would develop and teach a unit which focused on the technique or teaching procedure taught in the workshop.

The first Professional Development Academy (PDA) Saturday workshops were scheduled during the months from January through April 1986. With ice fishing and curling as the only major competing recreational activities, it was felt that there would be a greater likelihood of teacher attendance. Teachers registered for the workshops in advance and made a $5.00 deposit to hold their place. This deposit was returned when they appeared on Saturday morning. All together, 13 4-hour workshops were slated over five Saturday mornings. A total of 190 teachers registered for these sessions. Registration for each workshop was limited to 20 persons so that the sessions would be small enough to encourage interaction. These initial Saturday sessions included topics suggested by teachers as well as those recommended by administrators. For example, Madeline Hunter's model of effective teaching was a topic suggested by the staff. Cooperative learning, on the other hand, was a topic about which staff had little knowledge but which was offered at the request of administration to create some initial awareness.

The Professional Development Academy is now in its second year. It is jointly sponsored by two local public school systems, with additional participation by a third district and two parochial schools. It is still scheduled over five Saturdays during the coldest part of the Minnesota winter, but increased interest from the staff has led to scheduling 23 sessions, 10 more than in its first year. In two cases, topics have been scheduled which require more intensive training than is possible in the 4 hours available on Saturday morning. These longer workshops have been well attended even though they require a Friday night and an all-day Saturday commitment.

Benefits

The broadened sponsorship of the PDA has had several benefits. Enrollment has nearly doubled. There is now the opportunity to bring in more expensive presenters as well as to use a broader base of local talent. More importantly, however, is the opportunity for cross district sharing between teachers of similar grade levels and subject areas.

Cost and cost effectiveness are among the principal benefits in implementing a PDA-like concept. The total cost for the 23 workshops offered in the PDA's second year was about $8,000, shared among three districts. There is no charge to participants unless they want university credit, which they pay directly to the university. If a per participant cost is calculated however, it turns out to be less than $18.00 per workshop participant. These costs are particularly surprising when it is noted that this figure includes all honoraria and travel expenses for many outstanding presenters that came from places as far away as Baltimore, Maryland and Anchorage, Alaska.

Costs were kept down in several ways. Any staff developer knows that there is a top echelon of workshop presenters whose fame earns them high fees. There is, however, a second level of high-quality presenters who may eventually draw a thousand or more dollars a day but whose reputation is not yet at that level. These individuals will often work for $200-$400 a day plus expenses in order to develop their reputation. For instance, we were able to bring a top notch language arts consultant all the way from Denver for a total cost that was several hundred dollars less than the honorarium alone for someone from an in-state university with similar expertise.

Another way our costs are minimized is to share presenters with other districts and educational cooperatives in the general region. When contracting to bring a top presenter from some distance, we would always negotiate for at least 1 day in addition to the time we actually planned. If they were going to do a Saturday morning workshop, we would negotiate for Friday too. Usually the costs for the second day are significantly lower than for the first, especially if they know they will be presenting a second workshop on the same topic as the one they will present for us on Saturday. We then contact larger school systems or cooperatives within 50 miles that are not participating in the PDA. Invariably there will be interest in the availability of the presenter. Fees and travel costs are then shared to everyone's benefit.

A third, and possibly the smartest way, to keep presenters' costs low is to use key members of one's own teaching staff. This cannot be done for every workshop, but using talented local teachers or administrators, interspersed with outside experts, works well for us. The local individual, who is expert in some innovative technique and who is willing to stretch professionally by presenting to his or her peers, puts enormous effort into that presentation. The quality of the workshop will generally

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Saturday Staff Develoment cont. from page 4

be as high as the ones presented by outside "experts" and the costs will be significantly less. The act of preparing and putting on the workshop will also develop a new level of professionalism in that teacher. They also tend to work harder to live up to the enhanced image that their peers have of them as a result of their workshop presentation.

The cost effectiveness of the Saturday Professional Development Academy concept can be seen most vividly when contrasted to some of the alternative means available to us to heighten staff awareness of new teaching methods or to upgrade instructional skills. Workshops and conferences are certainly readily available in Minnesota as elsewhere. Sometimes they are only 25 to 75 miles away, sometimes in the Minneapolis/St. Paul area which is 200 miles distant. When you calculate the registration fee of $50 - $200, plus travel, lodging, and a substitute teacher at $50 per day, the cost per participant is astronomically higher that with the PDA approach.

While the quality and cost effectiveness issues favor the PDA concept - it is not without its flaws. One of these is that it is an elective program. Teachers who attend certainly benefit, but they are arguably the ones who need it least. The staff members most in need of renewal are those least likely to invest a Saturday morning to learn a new teaching technique. The incentive of credits on the salary schedule or graduate university credit often has no appeal because veteran teachers may not be able to move any further on the schedule. Many veterans attended simply out of their love for learning, but many did not.

There were some patterns of participation that were somewhat surprising and which represent another flaw in this approach. Though every effort was made to balance the workshops so that all of the K-12 levels and subjects would have equal interest in participating, far more participants came from the elementary level. Every workshop for primary-level staff was fully subscribed. Those offered for intermediate level were popular, but not as popular as the workshops for primary teachers. Participation dropped off dramatically at the junior high level, and was almost non-existent at the high school level. Out of over 130 high school teachers in the participating districts, less than a dozen enrolled.

In times like these when there are so many quality instructional approaches, the problem of how to find the time and resources to update and train a teaching staff looms ever larger. For smaller, less affluent, and more isolated school systems, these problems may seem insurmountable. With the right kind of incentives, the Saturday Professional Development Academy concept can provide an inexpensive and creative answer to an important staff development need. ■

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Staff Development Through Professional Reading and Discussion

Reading groups for professional publications are used to provide learning opportunities, overcome teacher isolation, and to strengthen communication links with the community.

MAUREEN A. SULLIVAN

A unique professional reading and discussion program in the East Lansing (MI) Public Schools has improved faculty morale, positively affected instruction, and helped establish positive contacts with community members. The program involved professional journal subscriptions for participants, regularly scheduled discussion sessions with the teachers' classes being covered during these times, and discussion participation by college faculty, school board members, and other community members.

The program was proposed to the district's Director of Instruction in the spring of 1985, and funding was approved for a pilot program in one elementary school for fall 1985. The features of the program are described here, along with a discussion of the effectiveness of the program.

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Features of the Program

Program Objectives

The primary purpose of the program was to increase the professional reading and discussion of current educational issues among the teaching staff and to combat the cellular structure of the self-contained classroom. Normally, elementary teachers have limited time in the day to engage in productive dialogue of educational issues. A secondary purpose of the program was to build communication bridges with the community. In this case, attempts were made to involve East Lansing's educational leaders, the faculty of Michigan State University (located in East Lansing), and state officials concerned with education.

The project was grounded in the administrative theory that suggests the needs of the institution are met if the needs of the staff are served (Getzels, Lipham, & Campbell, 1968). If the learning needs of the staff are served, then it would follow that the needs of the students would be served. The program was an application of Cunningham's (1977) theory that "great teachers are great learners and great learners are great teachers." Thus, a vehicle was sought that would provide learning, combat isolation, and strengthen communication links within the community.

Teacher Participants

Participation by teachers in the pilot school was voluntary. An overview of the proposed plan was given to the staff in the spring of 1985, and input was sought concerning specific needs and purposes that such a program might address. Additional meetings for interested teachers were held before the school year ended. Thirteen of the 25 teachers in the building agreed to participate. Members of the voluntary group ranged from teachers just entering the profession to those nearing retirement.

Community Participants and Class Coverage

Discussions of the professional journals were held during te regular school hours. This was a marked change from the in-servce sessions that began at 4:30 p.m. with tired teachers. As a means of obtaining class coverage and bringing university people into the sessions, university faculty were invited to cover a teacher's class one month while the teacher was at a discussion, and then sit in on a discussion session during another month.

The response was enthusiastic from both children and faculty. Invitations were also sent to school board members, Michigan Department of Education personnel, and local professionals involved with education. Although the original proposal included money for substitute teachers, it was rarely used because regular substitutes volunteered their services. The school administrators and instructional support staff of the district also covered classes and joined discussion groups. As a result, discussion sessions had a mix of teaching staff, administrators, community leaders, and university faculty.

Professional Journal Subscriptions

In Spring 1985, the teacher participants chose journals that would serve as the basis for the discussion sessions that were to begin in the fall. The subscriptions were paid by the school district. Since a variety of reading materials were desired, 12 different periodicals were selected. They included *Educational Leadership, Phi Delta Kappan, American Educational Research Journal, Psychology Today, Childhood Education, The Elementary School Journal, Reading Teacher, English Journal, Arithmetic Teacher,* and *American Journal of Education.* It was interesting to note the "how to" magazines were avoided and journals that dealt with topics in depth were selected. This was consistent with research that indicated that the practical is not always mind lifting to a teaching staff (Baird, 1984).

The primary purpose of the program was to increase the professional reading and discussion of current educational issues among the teaching staff and to combat the cellular structure of the self-contained classroom.

Aside from the seminar, the readings formed the basis for many discussions in the halls and teachers' room throughout the year. The selection of the articles and topics was the choice of the person who would serve as discussion leader for that session. Approximately 2 weeks prior to a seminar, journal articles that pertained to the topic or topics to be discussed were duplicated and sent to all participants.

Coordination of the Program

Two people were needed to run the program: a program coordinator and a discussion leader. The program coordinator was responsible for arranging for the journal subscriptions, class coverage for those teachers participating in the discussions, participation of individuals outside the school, and recommendations for the topics to be discussed in the monthly sessions. As the building reading consultant, I served as the program coordinator.

A discussion leader was also needed for each session. Since the research also had suggested that elementary teachers lacked opportunities to practice participatory management skills (Glickman, 1985), it was decided that the leadership would rotate monthly. The discussion leader was responsible for choosing the topic for discussion at each session, with the assistance of the program coordinator, selecting appropriate articles related to the topic, duplicating and distributing the articles about 2 weeks before the scheduled discussion session, and beginning the discussion.

Discussions of the professional journals were held during the regular school hours.

Effectiveness of the Program

After one year of implementation, the program has received good marks from all the participants. The Michigan Education Department staff has publicized the discussion seminars as an option for small districts with limited funds for staff development. The Department of Education also awarded the project a certificate of merit for linkage with the community. While we were able to tap the university for participants, a small town could conceivably use retired professionals, the town banker, doctor, or others. As program coordinator, I will share my observations in the following sections.

Morale

Collegiality within the building received a definite boost. Teachers began visiting one another in classrooms, and talk in the teachers' lounge was not exclusively about golf scores. While collegiality is seldom mentioned in effective schools research, adult alienation must be addressed if we are concerned with making teaching a satisfying profession. Teachers who initially had declined to enter the pilot program began to ask how they could join the discussion seminars. Arrangements were made for these teachers to attend a session or two.

Teachers in the original group have requested the discussion seminars be conducted twice a month instead of just once a month. A great deal of branching out from the discussion topics has also occurred. For instance, if the monthly topic had been early childhood education, then someone might mention a related article at a later seminar. In regular staff meetings, the level of professional interest in larger educational issues increased noticeably, with less time being spent discussing things such as recess schedules. In general, the whole atmosphere of the school became more professional in tone and interest. The pilot program met the intellectual needs of the staff, and the institution has been the benefactor. High morale was also maintained because the discussion seminars could be held during regular school hours, rather than in the late afternoon when teachers tend to be tired and have a tendency to be more negative.

Instructional Benefits

For beginning teachers, the discussion seminars seemed to bridge the gap between undergraduate university training and the realistic world of school. The discussion seminars provided an outlet for the newer teachers, and the mature teachers in the group gained from that. Beginning teachers were able to discuss the application of theory in the practical sense with their current colleagues, and the mature teachers were reminded of theory. The university participants appreciated the seminars as a means of information exchange.

Adult alienation must be addressed if we are concerned with making teaching a satisfying profession.

The combination of journal reading and discussion with faculty enhanced educational practices in the classroom. New teaching approaches and instructional activities were tried and later discussed in the

seminars. When assigned to cover a class, the university professors rose to the occasion and brought interesting experiences to the youngsters. The class-covering task also brought the administrators close to the children in the classroom.

Community Benefits

School board members reported that the discussion groups provided valuable connections between building staff and university people involved with current educational theories. After several monthly discussion seminars, the program coordinator was receiving calls from additional interested people throughout the area. Administrators in other buildings asked for a presentation on the project and sent teachers to observe the discussion seminars. The Professional Development Office within the Michigan Department of Education sent a representative who sat in on a seminar and later covered a class for us. The Ingham Intermediate School District also asked to participate. They later funneled information to us that would prove valuable in acquiring a grant. Clearly, the key factor here was interaction between school and community.

Implications for Staff Developers

While the plan presented here is not meant to be the entire staff development effort for a district, it may provide support for a larger, perhaps more technical, program. As suggested by Reinhartz and Van Cleaf (1984), many short-term programs fail because they provide little opportunity for staff to have a dialogue of any depth. If staff development is seen by teachers as a process to meet district instructional and curriculum needs and neglects the personal and professional growth needs of the teaching staff, then it will miss the mark for both veteran and novice teachers.

Academic discussions such as described here should be a routine part of all staff development programs as a means for providing support for teachers as they consider research, theory, and practice. While professional associations publish journals and organize conferences, they are seldom in a position to provide more specific support. This discussion seminar concept is a simple plan that would enable all the research findings, conference proceedings, and position papers to find the audience for which they were intended.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Call for Books to be Reviewed and Reviewers

A book review section will be included in future issues of the **Journal of Staff Development** and book reviewers are needed.

Reviews can come from two sources: (1) educators who have recent books related to staff development in their possession and choose to prepare a book review for the journal, or (2) educators who would like to receive a book to review from the editor.

People interested in preparing book reviews should send their name, mailing address, and phone number to the journal editor at the address listed below. A form will then be sent to prospective reviewers on which they identify topical interest areas for books they would like to review. As books become available, they will then be sent to the reviewers. Writing guidelines will be provided.

If interested, contact:

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SCHOOL-FOCUSED

Teacher-Conducted Brown Bag Lunch Seminars: One Solution to Staff Development in Isolated Schools

How can teachers in isolated settings develop awareness of current topics and issues in education? Through the use of a series of surveys, teachers in a private, overseas school identified priority topics for building-based staff development and developed lunchtime seminars for their colleagues based upon these findings.

PAUL W. JOHNSON

The American Embassy School (AES) in New Delhi, India, serves 700 students from 45 countries with 82 full- and part-time faculty, the majority being non-Indian. Like many private overseas schools, AES is isolated from sources of potential staff development. Visits to the school by consultants are few, university-sponsored seminars and evening classes do not exist, and professional organizations tend to be international, rather than local.

The staff development efforts which take place are typically workshops conducted prior to the opening of school each year. Topics are usually determined by administrators or department heads, who also conduct the sessions. In addition, money is set aside in the school's annual budget for staff development through curriculum workshops and independent work, attendance at the sub-regional international schools teachers' conference, summer study and sabbatical grants, and for various consultants hired in conjunction with other schools. Workshop days and professional leave days are included in faculty contracts.

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In spite of these efforts, teachers continued to feel isolated from the profession. Little formal opportunity existed for discussion of current topics and ideas in education and the sharing of new techniques or programs. To remedy this situation and to increase communication between teachers about their teaching, the middle school teachers at AES proposed a series of voluntary, monthly lunchtime seminars to be planned and implemented by the faculty members themselves.

Identifying Topics and Resource Persons

Topics and resource persons were identified at the beginning of the 1987-88 school year using a Delphi process, as discussed by Orlich (1989). The Delphi technique is a needs assessment process which involves teachers in a series of surveys meant to progressively define and narrow the range of topics for staff development programs. As each round of surveys is completed, the list of topics becomes smaller until teachers have chosen their most desired topics.

The process used at AES entailed three rounds of surveys. As each round was completed, the principal tallied responses and sent the next round of surveys to teachers. In round one of the Delphi process, teachers were asked to brainstorm a list of topics. The purpose was to generate as complete a list of potential topics as possible. The survey included some suggestions for staff development programs and asked teachers to add topics to the list. Teachers

were also to check their preferred modes of delivery and the frequency of the programs.

For round two of the Delphi process, teachers were given a second questionnaire to complete, based on the list of topics generated from the first round. From the list of 19 topics, teachers were asked to identify their five most desired topics, as well as to list possible resource persons on the faculty for any of the subjects. Topics on the survey included questioning strategies, cooperative learning, motivating underachievers, time management, student self-concept, and others. The identification of resource persons was a critical step since outside resources (e.g., consultants, universities) were not readily available to the school.

In round three of the Delphi process, teachers were asked to prioritize their top five choices from the list of 10. The top five topics identified were: cooperative learning, learning styles, motivation of underachievers, manipulative and hands-on activities, and bulletin boards. Teachers indicated a preference for one topic to be covered per month. For the next 6 months, the top five topics were to be addressed, with learning styles taking two of the monthly sessions.

Each lunchtime seminar was planned and taught by teachers identified during round two and/or school administrators. In some cases, two or more people conducted the workshops. Materials and time for preparation were provided to presenters. The typical format for each session was 20-30 minutes of presentation followed by 15-20 minutes of discussion.

Results of the Project

While the workshops were largely informational and were meant to increase teachers' awareness, they had positive effects in other ways as well. During teacher evaluation conferences conducted at the end of the school year, teachers reported increased communication between colleagues and more use of professional materials in the Teacher Resource Center. Two pairs of math teachers formed mentor relationships to learn about and incorporate into their teaching the hands-on activities presented in the seminar. The mentor relationship was described in writing, presented to the school director and board, and received financial and released time support for planning, observation, and feedback sessions.

Participation in the workshops was highest (80% of the middle school faculty) during the initial session and for more general topics such as cooperative learning and learning styles. Participation was lower (20% minimum) for more specific topics such as manipulatives, which focused primarily on math. However, teachers remained positive in their overall perceptions of the seminars. Teachers supported continuation of the lunchtime seminars as a forum for discussion and as a possible starting point for other staff development projects.

The Delphi technique is a needs assessment process which involves teachers in a series of surveys meant to progressively define and narrow the range of topics for staff development programs. As each round of surveys is completed, the list of topics becomes smaller until teachers have chosen their most desired topics.

Recommendations

Based on our experience with lunchtime seminars at AES in New Delhi, I offer several recommendations to others considering a similar series of seminars.

1. Involve faculty in the identification of topics through a process which encourages brainstorming followed by a means of paring the list. The process of narrowing the list of topics must involve teachers. This can be done through a series of surveys, as outlined in the Delphi process.

2. Don't overlook the resources available within the faculty. In many isolated settings, the main resource is the faculty members themselves, and many have experience and training which can be shared.

3. Once resource persons have been identified for each topic, provide them with planning support such as released time, materials, and assistance in preparation of activities.

4. Encourage ongoing discussion of the topics presented and support potential spin-off efforts as a result of the seminars.

5. Consider other possible formats for the sessions, such as basing discussion on readings when resource people are not available (Sullivan, 1987).

6. As long as participation is voluntary, realize that participation will vary. Avoid seminars during such periods as the end of academic terms, end of the year, and the week prior to a vacation.

Conclusion

While this format was particularly helpful in New Delhi, it might also be useful for rural and isolated schools in the United States without direct access to continuing education efforts of local universities. It could also serve as well as a forum for idea exchange and information dissemination about current trends or issues in education for less isolated settings. This model recognizes the human resources that are available in any school. In this case, the American Embassy School just happened to be in India!

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Building Level Staff Development: A Personal Account of A Peer Helping Peers

Building-level staff developers are a relatively new idea. This article outlines the history of one person's pioneer experiences filling such a position through a description of tasks, experiences, personal insights, and recommendations.

KATHRYN M. TALLERICO

A building-level staff developer is a change agent, resource person, coach, and mentor. When I became a part-time staff developer in my school, I didn't know any of this simply because no one I know had ever heard of a building-level staff developer. Eventually, however, I defined the position in a manner which is typical for such innovative ventures — through trial and error. Thus, for those of you thinking of placing staff developers in your schools or of accepting such a position, I would like to discuss some of the results of my trial-and-error process and offer suggestions from the lessons I learned.

Kathryn M. Tallerico is a building-level staff developer, teacher trainer, and classroom teacher in Pecos Junior High School, Adams County, 9450 Pecos St., Denver, Colorado 80221.

First-Year Experience

When I took the job in 1985 as teacher and part-time staff developer, neither my principal nor I had seen a job description, though the position was being introduced simultaneously at four other buildings in the district. Therefore, our initial plans were admittedly rather vague, encompassing only two rather broad goals: (a) to help teachers focus on instructional improvement, and (b) to contribute to the teachers' professional well-being. Even with 13 years in education, training in clinical supervision, and a nearly completed master's degree in communication, I was not truly certain where to begin to meet these goals.

In order to introduce the concept of a school-level staff developer, we sent out a notice to our staff in the previous spring stating our goals and asking them for suggestions. In the semester that I began my duties as a school-level staff developer, the school had a fairly large staff turnover, resulting in 10 new teachers. Consequently, before school began, my principal and I decided to work with inexperienced teachers first. Therefore, I was to observe and hold conferences will all new teachers using the clinical supervision model. My day would consist of 4 hours of these observations and conferences and two hours of instruction in 2 ninth-grade English classes. In their pre-hiring interviews, the principal had explained to the new teachers that I would be observing them on a regular basis and that, in addition to the department head, I was a person to see for questions, support, and advice. Therefore, the new teachers were prepared to have me visit their classrooms.

Because of the many needs of the new teachers, the 1985-86 school year began at full tilt. While I was concerned that the pace would slow down dramatically once the new teachers felt "settled in," my fear was never realized. Instead of boredom, I soon found challenge around every corner.

Tasks of the Job

The tasks and projects that I tackled during my "rookie" year as a building-level staff developer can be divided into three categories: (a) formal instructional tasks, (b) informal instructional tasks, and (c) attitude/change tasks. These are outlined below.

Formal instructional tasks included the following:

- Conducting ongoing observations and conferences with all new teachers for growth and reinforcement. While this took much time, it was judged extremely valuable by all new teachers.
- Leading informal meetings, mini-inservices, and discussion sessions with all new teachers or other groups of teachers.
- Planning and conducting two separate 10-week sessions (held after school) of peer observation. This was an exciting, voluntary class in which experienced teachers learned to observe and provide

positive reinforcement to each other during the course of a normal school day.

Informal instructional tasks included:

- Encouraging teachers to observe each other for any reason, and often covering classes while they did so.
- Consulting with the principal regularly and at length about various school-related matter.
- Gathering information and disseminating appropriate materials to teachers and other staff members.
- Holding informal question/answer sessions and discussions in the teachers' lounge on an almost daily basis with many staff members.

Attitude/Change tasks included:

- Promoting an atmosphere of openness, interdependence, and mutual support among all staff members.
- Listening to teachers who simply needed to talk.
- Acting, intentionally and unintentionally, as a change agent. This included giving encouragement, assistance, and moral support to any teacher who showed even the slightest interest in trying anything new. Topics included instructional improvement, planning, curriculum, classroom management, and extra-curricular matters.

Retrospective View of My First Year

After this exciting yet somewhat scary first year, I was able to identify some major successes and two main problems. Let me first deal with the problems.

Obstacles to Initial Success. First, as with any innovation, there was some initial skepticism among the teachers. This was only to be expected, and there was actually less of it than I had anticipated.

Most teachers were openly and actively supportive. With any such venture, only time, the spread of enthusiasm, and the news of success can and will change the attitudes held by skeptics.

No one openly thwarted my efforts, and many expressed approval to the timeliness of a building-level staff developer. Actually, most teachers were openly and actively supportive. With any such venture, only time, the spread of enthusiasm, and the news of success can and will change the attitudes held by skeptics.

Another obstacle was limited resources. Specifically, I needed more time and money. First, one part-time building-level staff developer is not enough to provide support for change and give specific assistance to all staff members in one building. More time could be provided by making the assignment of the staff developer full-time or by adding additional part-time staff developers. Next, more money is needed to cover the expense of occasional substitute teachers so that teachers can observe and/or confer with one another. Third, it takes time for the change process to take its natural course. Lastly, it takes time to learn the job of a building-level staff developer.

Successes. The accomplishments of my first year, on the other hand, were exciting and tangible. I look back on six areas of success.

First, the new teachers reported feelings of great improvement in their teaching effectiveness and of a major reduction in stress. Because of this, I believe many of them entered their second year with far superior skills and more confidence than is typical. Their self-awareness and their positive attitudes are also noteworthy. Typically, first-year teachers undergo two or three observations/evaluations by an overloaded administrator. Because of the frequent observations and immediate feedback I was able to provide them, I believe they became better teachers.

Next, peer observation was a phenomenal success, especially with experienced teachers in the program. For them, it was often harder to change old behaviors than to learn new ones. The participants were much happier with the process than I had ever dreamed possible. The increase in trust, collegiality, and the practice of new learnings was dramatic.

Third, all teachers who used my services expressed consistently high satisfaction. The administrators were also enthusiastic and supportive. As a result, teachers began to ask questions about peer observation, new teaching techniques, or other education-related topics. For many teachers, this was the first step toward change.

Fourth, students have been positively affected. Students observed interdependence and shared goal-setting when teachers frequently visited each other's classrooms. Seeing their teachers learn

Peer observation was a phenomenal success. Participants were much happier with the process than I had ever dreamed possible. The increase in trust, collegiality, and the practice of new learnings was dramatic.

served as a model for students that learning is a lifelong process. When students asked visiting teachers "Why are you here?" the response most often was "to learn something from your teacher," or "to show her what she is doing right." Students often shared what they were doing with the visiting teachers or asked questions of them. Thus, students obtained the practical benefits of two experts in their classroom at the same time. Furthermore, the classrooms with two teachers present were better managed.

Fifth, some of the staff members learned the theory and the techniques involved in team learning, a cooperative grouping strategy which the peer observation classes studied. Several other teachers expressed interest in team learning after hearing much talk about it in the teachers' lounge among peer observation class members. This is especially meaningful, since cooperation among teachers was one of my main goals as a staff developer.

Last, but possibly most important, it seems that change itself may now be less threatening to many staff members. The practice of teachers visiting classes or taking opportunities to try out new instructional approaches has become less intimidating, or at least less shocking. Of course

more time is needed to get everybody involved in sharing this sense of joint experimentation and learning, but I am confident that the change process is in full swing.

Second-Year Experience

In my second year as building staff developer, I am performing many of the same functions as the first year as well as some additional ones. Some of the changes I am witnessing this year include:

- Getting more teachers involved in teaching each other, formally via mini-inservices.
- Having many more eachers actively participate in such inservices and other staff development activities.
- Receiving and responding to more individual requests for help and/or suggestions.
- Feeling less reluctance on the part of several reluctant teachers to "use" me.
- Hearing those who have participated in peer observation and similar peer assistance efforts spread an enthusiastic word for such efforts, thereby making strides toward my goal of eventually having the entire staff be·ome mini-staff developers.

The experiences I have had as a building staff developer have given me greater joy than I have known in my entire career.

Personal Thoughts

The experiences I have had over the past year and a half as a building staff developer have given me greater joy than I have known in my entire career. Looking back, I see that I have grown immensely from this experience. The growth occurred within and without: it involved seeing success for myself and success for others, too.

Having always considered myself an adventuresome and innovative person, I found it thrilling, albeit somewhat fearsome, to prove that I could indeed take on such an unknown challenge. It was even more satisfying to realize that, given the opportunity, most teachers are exceptionally adventuresome and innovative too. It was a pleasure, therefore, to help facilitate the growth of such traits in others.

Sharing goals, successes, and frustrations with teachers on a very close basis brought us closer, both personally and professionally. We saw that we do not have to be alone in our classrooms and that we have much to gain from leaning on and learning from each other.

I also learned in my heart what I knew all along in my head: that change comes through hard work and through dealing with some discomfort and resistance. Fortunately, I had the support and advice of other building-level staff developers in other schools in the district. We all had the same problems and challenges.

In addition, I had the thrill of seeing good teachers take risks to become better, asking only for a little encouragement and a little praise along the way. The opportunity to help them in this manner provided a great sense of purpose to my job. For me, that was the bottom line.

Recommendations for Other Building Staff Developers

Others who wish to become building-level staff developers need to keep several suggestions in mind.

- **Get the support of the building principal.** This is indispensable for the success of building-level staff development. Without it, you are doomed.
- **Get training in clinical supervision.** You will need to give specific, fair, accurate feedback to many teachers based on observations of their classrooms. Learn how to do this well, and your judgment will be respected and your advice heeded.
- **Suggest and begin a peer observation class.** When teachers see that they can also observe others and, in effect, do what you are doing too, they will change more rapidly and more readily accept the premise that teachers can help teachers.
- **Focus on new and inexperienced teachers first.** These people want your help most and will accept it most willingly.
- **Take one thing at a time.** Tackling too many projects and not finishing any of them will jeopardize your chances of truly helping anyone, and it will prove the skeptics right.
- **Read everything you can get your hands on.** A person who is up to date on the latest educational research has more credibility and more tools for helping others.
- **Find a support group for yourself.** Seek out supportive friends, administrators, and other building-level staff developers. They are invaluable sources of feedback, suggestions, and encouragement.
- **Refer to yourself by your title.** This helps you act like a staff developer, think like a staff developer, and perform like a staff developer.

I had the thrill of seeing good teachers take risks to become better, asking only for a little encouragement and a little praise along the way. The opportunity to help them in this manner provided a great sense of purpose to my job.

Conclusion

I remind my staff periodically that they only need to ask for my help and I will provide it, or least do my best to discover where it might be found. I believe that most schools have vast untapped resources in the energy and expertise of their staffs. Teachers need only a little help to uncover such resources and a little training to use them effectively. The job of the building-level staff developer is to make these things possible.

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Staff Development: Eight Leadership Behaviors for Principals

School administrators must do more than read the recent reports on excellence in education to improve their schools. They should adopt the eight leadership behaviors outlined here, says this author.

By Maran Doggett

THE CURRENT QUEST for excellence in education has ignited public interest and set in motion a revolution to improve schooling. Two critical factors supported by practically all major educational research on school excellence are the instructional leadership of the principal[1] and ongoing, school-based staff development.[2]

These factors are closely related. The best indicator that principals are effective instructional leaders is the existence of an ongoing, school-based staff development program within the school.

To become a productive instructional leader, the secondary principal must translate the wealth of research on school excellence into an ongoing, school-based development program that will help teachers deliver classroom instruction that increases student academic achievement.

The following are eight leadership behaviors for secondary principals that promote staff development at the building level.

1. *Encourage Teacher Discussion About Good Teaching Practices*[3]

Faculty meetings, inservice programs, memos to staff, one-to one conferences, and department meetings all offer excellent opportunities for the principal to encourage teachers to discuss current research on effective teaching.

Results of local school surveys on homework, student failure rates, and obstacles preventing teachers from motivating and instructing their students are also important issues that should be discussed. Raising teachers' awareness of these problems is an important step toward unifying a staff to work together on projects to improve classroom instruction.

Teachers must participate in a dialog about school effectiveness if change is to occur, and the principal must be the one to facilitate the "shop talk" and prompt teachers to examine their teaching.

2. *Involve Teachers in Developing and Evaluating Yearly Staff Objectives*[4]

The principal should take the initiative to work with teachers, parents, and students in assessing the strengths and needs of the school's instructional programs.

Once these strengths and needs have been defined, they should be translated into written objectives in which the teachers have an investment and, therefore, see a need to accomplish. Listed below are some of the objectives a staff of 90 high school teachers helped to formulate.

- Reduce student tardiness by setting a good example, i.e., starting instructional activities promptly, stating expectations clearly, holding students consistently accountable, and following up with an administrator regarding persistent unexcused tardies.
- Work to improve staff morale by encouraging open communications among staff members and working together to prevent and solve problems that hinder good staff morale.
- Make at least one positive phone call to parents each week.
- Recognize positive contributions of fellow staff members.
- Build school spirit by supporting co-curricular activities.
- Monitor students who have tape recorders and who take foods or beverages into the halls or classrooms.
- Rely on direct communications as much as possible to prevent problems from festering.
- Promote an atmosphere for academic learning throughout the school.
- Equip students with better skills in note-taking, outlining, test-taking, and personal organization skills.

During the first semester of the current school year, the principal monitored staff success in accomplishing the objectives by giving written feedback on issues such as attendance and discipline problems, scholarships, student performance on homework, teacher input on progress made on staff objectives, parent evaluations of the school's curriculum, results of student attitude surveys, and student failure rates.

The survey results provided "local data" that the staff used to determine strengths and needs of the instructional program for the current year.

This local data also was the basis for

1. Gene Huddle, "How Complex Is the Principal's Job? What Actions Can Principals Take To Be More Effective?" *NASSP Bulletin*, December 1984, pp. 62-67.
2. Jon C. Marshall and Sarah D. Caldwell, "How Valid Are Formal, Informal Needs Assessment Methods for Planning Staff Development Programs?" *NASSP Bulletin*, November 1984, pp. 24-30.

Maran Doggett is principal at Bear Creek High School, Denver, Colo.

3. Theodore R. Sizer, *A Review and Comment on the National Reports* (Reston, Va.: NASSP, 1983) p. 13.

4. Ronald Edmonds, "Effective Schools for the Urban Poor," *Educational Leadership*, October 1979, pp. 15-24.

leveloping staff objectives for the following year.

Goodlad "found little evidence to uggest any open meeting of the minds n the part of principals, teachers, stulents, and parents regarding school veaknesses, problems, and strengths."[5] When the assessment of the school's nstructional program centers on the eople closest to the school, the data eem more vital and there is less disgreement among staff, students, and arents about its validity.

Even more important, as Boyer's research suggests: "the school community - teachers, students, and principal --sees learning as the primary goal. In such a community, the principal ecomes not just the top authority but he key educator, too."[6]

3. *Exhibit Knowledge of Learning Theory, Instructional Methods, and Research*[7]

Bloom's Taxonomy, Hilgard's Principles of Learning, Hunter's Lesson Plan Analysis, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Piaget's Stages of Development, Mastery Learning, and Direct Instruction are just a few theories and methods of learning that the principal can appply n working with teachers to improve classroom instruction.

Current research on school effectiveness such as the Carnegie Study (Boyer), *A Nation at Risk*, *All Our Children Learning* (Bloom), and A Study of Schooling (Goodlad) can be converted by the principal into practical staff development activities for improving classroom instruction.

Without a working knowledge of learning theory and research, the principal will be limited in generating discussion among teachers about the act of good teaching, the first administrator behavior listed above.

One example of translating theory and research into a practical instructional method for improving classroom teaching brings Maslow's theory of motivation together with Rosenshine's and Furst's research on effective classroom instruction[8] to form a teaching strategy called "premotivation."[9]

In applying this strategy, the teacher makes a special effort to help students fully realize the purpose and value behind the learning before engaging them in the instructional activity.

Maslow defined motivation as a yearning or desire to learn on the part of the learners, and even though the learners may not do anything substantive to realize their desire, this would not alter the fact that they were motivated to learn.

Rosenshine's and Furst's research, on the other hand, suggests that teachers who probe, cue, and emphasize good questioning techniques with their students are more apt to generate thinking and learning in their students.

Getting teachers to help their students appreciate the real value and purpose behind their learning before they learn it will increase the learning's relevance to the needs of the students. This will generate a higher level of student motivation to become actively involved in the pursuit of teachers' learning objectives.

4. *Set High Priority on Student Discipline and Attendance*[10]

Good student discipline and attendance are prerequisites to good instruction. Unless the principal works with staff members to set and enforce workable policies and procedures for student conduct and attendance, the principal will be hindered as an instructional leader.

In Maslow's hierarchy of needs, safety and security should be satisfied before the person can concentrate on higher needs such as self-actualization and an appreciation of the aesthetics. For secondary teachers, student discipline and attendance needs must be satisfied in order for teachers to be receptive to staff development activities that center on improving classroom instruction.

A written step-by-step discipline procedure for teachers to follow when the need arises is a cornerstone to the future success of a school's instructional program. The same is true for student attendance; the principal must show concern for attendance and discipline by taking the lead in developing, implementing, and evaluating practical policies that work for teachers.

The principals' success as an instructional leader is largely determined by their success in promoting good student discipline and regular student attendance.

5. *Make Expectations of Self, Teachers, and Students High but Attainable*[11]

Many secondary principals feel that a good teacher sets high expectations for students.

High expectations are important, but almost any teacher can establish high learning expectations for students. The skillful classroom teacher knows the more important challenge is in motivating and helping youngsters to achieve the high expectations.

The situation is similar for the principal as a staff developer. Using skills, knowledge, and creativity, the principal must set high but attainable standards for the staff members, offering suggestions on how the staff can achieve these standards.

Principals should also share their vision of the instructional program with teachers, students, and parents, detailing what their role will be in helping to achieve the vision by modeling behaviors that show their commitment to excellence.

For example, if principals expect teachers to listen to students, they should listen to staff. If they expect teachers to suggest to students how they can improve their learning, they should offer teachers suggestions for improving their teaching. Principals should be as

5. John I. Goodlad, *A Place Called School* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1984), p. 31.

6. Ernest L. Boyer, *High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America* (New York: Harper and Row, [illegible]), p. 229.

7. Elliot W. Eisner, "Can Educational Research Inform Educational Practice?" *Phi Delta Kappan*, [illegible], 1984).

8. B. Rosenshine and N. Furst, *The Appraisal of Teaching: Concepts and Process* (Reading, Mass.: Addison Wesley Publishing Co., 1977), pp. 70-72.

9. Marian Doggett, "Aiding the Seriously Deficient Learner in Computation," *The Mathematics Teacher*, September 1978, pp. 488-89.

10. The National Commission on Excellence in Education, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*, April 1983, pp. 29-30.

11. Gerald D. Bailey, "Faculty Feedback for Administrators: A Model to Improve Leadership Behavior," *NASSP* [illegible] January 1984, pp. 5-9.

positive with teachers as they want teachers to be with students.

Meetings and inservice programs conducted by principals should demonstrate good teaching behavior. Principals should ask teachers probing questions about their instructional activities, and teachers should have the opportunity to evaluate the principals, since the staff members are encouraged to solicit feedback from their students.

Through these behaviors, principals will be more apt to convince their staff members that they take the issue of academic excellence seriously, and the staff will be more responsive to ideas, suggestions, and strategies for improving their instruction.

This should be the focal point of ongoing school-based staff development.

What is the principal's vision of the instructional program? What are the behaviors he or she chooses to model in achieving this vision? A Principal's Grade Report, below, gives teachers a chance to know what principals expect of themselves and the opportunity to give feedback to principals about their performance.

6. *Observe Classes and Be Visible*[12]

One of the most important administrator behaviors for promoting school-based staff development among teachers is the quality and quantity of classroom visitations, yet it may be the least practiced behavior.

Too much paperwork, too many meetings, too many teachers, not enough time are reasons often cited by principals for not visiting and evaluating teachers. But the two main obstacles are poor management of time and the lack of confidence in one's own skills and knowledge about teacher observation-analysis.

In the final analysis, only the superintendent can solve this problem by providing adequate training to principals or by not promoting administrators to the position of principal until they have demonstrated competency in evaluating classroom teachers and in making teacher observation-analysis a high priority.

12. Milbrey W. McLaughlin and David D. Marsh, "Staff Development and School Change," *Teacher College Record*, Vol. 80, No. 1, September, pp. 69-94.

Areas of Evaluation	GRADE				
1. Rapport with Staff	A	B	C	D	F
2. Innovativeness	A	B	C	D	F
3. Flexibility When Appropriate	A	B	C	D	F
4. Approachability	A	B	C	D	F
5. Knowledge of Concepts and Skills Important in Various Content Areas	A	B	C	D	F
6. Positive Recognition Given to Teachers	A	B	C	D	F
7. Observation and Evaluation of Staff	A	B	C	D	F
8. Organizational-Management Skills	A	B	C	D	F
9. Instructional Leadership in General	A	B	C	D	F
10. Student Discipline	A	B	C	D	F
11. Emphasis and Support Given to Academics	A	B	C	D	F
12. Emphasis and Support Given to Athletics	A	B	C	D	F
13. Sense of Accountability for the Total School Operation	A	B	C	D	F

Whether principals use a form of clinical supervision, some sort of check list, or an evaluation format of their own making, the critical issue in teacher evaluation is providing teachers with specific, positive, and constructive feedback about their instruction that will cause them to examine their teaching and their students' learning.

Written feedback by itself will not suffice and should be followed by dialog between the teacher and principal about the act of teaching and learning.

Teacher evaluation enables the principal to make the connection between what research says is good instruction and what is actually taking place in the classroom.

For instance, if the teacher asks probing questions, gives positive reinforcement to students, is task-oriented, and sets a nice tone for learning with a businesslike style, the principal should recognize these productive teaching behaviors by reinforcing or clarifying them.

If these behaviors are not evident, the principal should note their absence and help the teacher to understand how they can be used to enhance students' learning.

Principals who do a good job of evaluating teachers are visible principals. This visibility bolsters staff morale and increases school spirit.

7. *Facilitate Positive Reinforcement Among Teachers and Students*[13]

Every school needs a program to recognizing teacher excellence, and although funds may not be available to financial rewards, the principal can still do much to provide this needed recognition.

During the 1983-84 school year the principal at Bear Creek High School in Denver, Colo., initiated a program in which teachers were encouraged to recognize fellow teachers through written "Teacher Commendations."

In nine months, teachers gave the principal 250 written commendations to present to their fellow teachers. Students were also invited to look for good teaching behaviors in their teachers and then commend them by completing a "Teacher Tribute." During the first year of the program, 500 tributes were given to teachers.

Praising people in an honest, concrete fashion can be contagious, and giving praise can be as fulfilling as receiving it, particularly when the recipient thanks a fellow teacher who took the time to give the praise.

The groundwork for increasing student recognition was laid early in the school year when staff members agreed to make one telephone call per week to a parent of a student who was excelling in their classes.

One chemistry teacher, intending to make only one call for the week, was so pleased with the positive reaction of the first parent he called that he went on to

13. Ray Cross, "What Makes an Effective Principal," *Principal*, March 1981, pp. 19-22.

ll 25 other parents during the first
ek of the project.

Five of the parents he called, in turn,
re so elated with the teacher's posi-
e attitude that they called the princi-
l to commend the teacher for taking
e time to give them good news about
eir children.

More than 1,300 student recognition
lls were made by the staff during the
st year of the project.

Advocate Change Through Schoolwide Projects[1]

Student and teacher recognition proj-
ts, schoolwide emphasis on home-
ork, regular and frequent monitoring
student progress, quality of academic
arning time-on-task, well-coordinated
d enforced policies on student atten-
ance, and discipline are examples of
portant issues to be addressed within
school's staff development program.
he principal's responsibility is to work
ith staff members to assess needs and
en to propose projects aimed at meet-
g the needs.

But unless the teachers are made
ware of the problems hindering instruc-
on and sense the advantages of a new
roject, they probably will not be sup-
ortive. Practically any issue, ranging
om students failing to complete their
omework to littering halls and class-
ooms with trash, can be turned into a
uccessful schoolwide project. When
achers have evidence that a change is
eeded, they will usually support the
roposed solution.

Impatient as they may be to bring about changes within the school, principals should resist impulsive changes until most staff members have become involved in helping to determine if the changes would be beneficial to the school.

Involving the staff in the change process is critical to good principal-staff relations and is also essential to school-based staff development.

Four sequential steps should guide principals in working with their staff members as they usher in change:

- *Step One: Raise Staff Awareness* about important issues and problems by encouraging open discussion among teachers based on staff and student surveys that speak to the concerns. Also ask teachers to investigate the issues themselves and to discuss their observations with each other. Often teachers do not realize that their colleagues feel as strongly about an issue as they do, and by coordinating staff communications, the principal can foster a positive staff attitude toward change.

  When the teachers are well-informed about issues and understand how others feel, they will be more receptive to a proposal intended to solve the problem.
- *Step Two: Elevate Staff Awareness* to a higher level of concern by bringing the staff together to examine the extent to which they feel the problem should be addressed.

  If there is consensus among staff members or if a substantial majority supports the need for change, then a plan of action is needed to solve the problem.

  [illegible] their support for a change, the principal has only to work with a small group of teachers in defining a proposal that the staff would probably accept, since they had already been consulted and voiced their support for the change.
- *Step Three: Meeting the Need* through an action plan and giving the staff the opportunity to evaluate progress will only increase their support, so long as the principal is guided by the staff's input and is willing to make the necessary revisions in order for the project to succeed.
- *Step Four:* The staff's success in any new undertaking should not be taken for granted by the principal or the staff. The principal, therefore, should *Monitor and Report Progress to Staff* members so they can see if their investment is paying off.

  This feedback will encourage teachers to maintain their support of worthwhile projects which might otherwise die due to apathy. If the project is not successful, the principal should propose revisions or abandonment in favor of another action plan.

These sequential steps have been used in many secondary schools to establish written procedures for discipline, attendance, homework, school cleanup projects, as well as programs for equipping students with materials and study skills.

Through this four-step change process the staff members at these schools refined their teaching and management skills, which in turn had a positive effect on students' learning. Improving classroom instruction is the essence of school-based, ongoing staff development, and the active leadership of the principal is crucial.

During the last school year three significant changes were made in Bear Creek High School's academic learning climate because the principal and staff members saw the need to give more recognition to students who excelled academically.

The four-step change process was used to bring about these changes:

1. Each quarter, departments selected outstanding students in every content area. Photographs were displayed of the students, certificates of merit were presented to them, and letters of commendation were sent to their parents.

   This project, known as "Scholastic Achievers," helped to renew the interest of students in academics; 250 students received special recognition last year as Scholastic Achievers. The project received an enthusiastic endorsement from teachers and is now in its second year.
2. No longer would the student earning the highest grade point average automatically become valedictorian because restrictions were placed on candidates. Instead, only those completing 16 academic credits, two years of foreign language, and two Advanced Placement courses would be endorsed as candidates for valedictorian of the senior class.

   Upon satisfying these restrictions, the student with the highest grade point average would earn the title of valedictorian. This change encouraged the top students to take the more rigorous courses and added prestige and equity to the valedictory award, without resorting to a policy of "weighted grades."
3. Students at [illegible] grade level who completed a min[illegible] of three academic courses each semester, along with [illegible]

1. Judith Warren [illegible] "The Effective Princi-
al." *American Education*, August September

three electives, and earned a 4.0 for the entire year were awarded an academic medal.

Eighty-six students were awarded academic medals at "Spirit Assembly" in which 1,900 of their fellow students cheered these young scholars.

Recognition of students' academic excellence has long been overdue in high school, and this project was enthusiastically endorsed by teachers, parents, and students and will probably become a tradition at our school.

Conclusion

Since *A Nation at Risk* was published in 1983, more than 30 reports and books and a plethora of articles have been published on the topic of school excellence. Principals must take the reins of leadership and move forward.

Ernest Boyer said it best: "In schools where achievement was high and where there was a clear sense of community, we found, invariably, that the principal made the difference."[15]

Through the application of these eight performance behaviors, principals can strengthen their leadership and make significant contributions toward helping students to achieve excellence in their learning.

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15. Boyer, p. 219.

How To Disagree, Yet Be Agreeable

The art of public relations includes more than news releases and meetings with community groups, says Ronald Green, administrative intern at South Jr. High School, Nampa, Idaho. Public relations also means human relations.

Although most interactions with parents, teachers, and students are pleasant, sometimes the administrator finds himself or herself disagreeing. To disagree without being disagreeable, Green offers the following suggestions:

- Accept the other person's feelings. It is of little value to say, "You shouldn't feel that way." The person already has those feelings. Your task is not necessarily to agree with those feelings but to recognize and accept them.
- Accept the other person's ideas. By accepting the ideas, you are not necessarily agreeing but letting the person know that you hear what he or she is saying. Repeat what you believe he or she is saying, and indicate that you will look into it or get some other facts or opinions. Most of the time the attackers just want to be heard and are satisfied by having a receptive, captive listener.

A Building Level Staff Development Model That Works

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Catalyst for Change, East Texas School Study Council.

Burnis Hall, Jr.

In recent years, great strides have been made in identifying characteristics of pedagodically effective schools. Schools considered "effective" share the following common elements: (1) high staff expectations, (2) high morale, (3) a considerable degree of control by the staff over instructional and staff development decisions, (4) support and leadership from the principal, (5) clear goals for the school, and (6) a sense of order in the school (Purkey & Smith, 1982). Although much work has been done on describing the common elements of effective schools, little research is available as to the question, "How are schools to be made more effective"?

In the early 1980's we have seen several efforts to use staff development activities to improve schools (e.g., Stallings, Robbins & Russell, in progress). Because such programs typically extend over two or three years, the evaluations of those activities are beginning to emerge in the literature (Eubanks and Levine, 1983). At present, however, there are very few such evaluations.

Regrettably, little research is available to shed light on the process of school improvement. While much discussed, little is actually known about the efficacy of building-level staff development models. MacKenzie's (1983) review of research for school improvement, asserts that "the question of what is important in school effectiveness may now be less significant than the question of what can be changed for the least cost and the most results." MacKenzie concludes that the greatest contemporary need is for studies that record the process of school improvement in detail.

This article describes the experiences of two schools in a period of three years in which they participated in a school improvement project. Both schools were highly successful in raising their test scores, and both attributed these improvements to the staff development program. An important outcome is that the process has been institutionalized in the dynamics of the schools. Both school's improvement efforts are being continued even through the physical presence of the University and its assistance has ended. Before going into detail about each school, the school improvement model will be described.

THE SIX-STEP STAFF DEVELOPMENT MODEL FOR SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

Historical Background

In 1981, the College of Education at Wayne State University (WSU) received a grant from the State of Michigan to initiate a building-level staff development program that would combine the resources of the university with those of local schools to encourage teacher-directed school improvement. Nineteen elementary and secondary schools instituted the Staff Development for School Improvement (SDSI) Model in 1981. 11 others joined in 1982, and six more started in 1983. At the present time, 15 districts are participating in the project. Each school received approximately $3,000 during the first year, $1,500 during the second year, and $500 in the final year, all to be used for staff development activities. In addition to funds, the University provided each school with a facilitator to guide the school through the six-step process.

Description of the Model

The six steps in the SDSI Model are (1) Readiness, Awareness, and Commitment, (2) Needs Assessment, (3) Planning, (4) Implementation, (5) Evaluation, and (6) Reassessment and Continuation (Hough & Urick, 1981).

Step I. Readiness

To attain readiness, the facilitator meets with the principal and the staff until they understand the purpose and the steps in the process. Subsequently, questions are answered, and concerns are addressed. Finally, the staff decides by vote whether to participate in the process or not. A vote of 70 percent of the staff was required to begin a project in that building. If the staff voted to participate, a follow-up meeting was scheduled to move on to the next step.

Step II. Needs Assessment

Step Two sought to establish a building needs assessment. During the Needs Assessment Process, the facilitator leads the staff through (a) diagnosis, (b) brainstorming, and (c) prioritizing activities to select school goals. After consensus is obtained on the one or two main goals, five or more planning team members (hereafter referred to as Building Level Team or BLT) are elected to work on the school's SDSI plan for that year.

Step III. Writing the Plan

The Third Step, Writing the Plan, is accomplished with extensive guidance from the university facilitator and support from the building principal. The plan includes (a) specific objectives related to the goal, (b) activities to be completed, (c) persons responsible for each activity, evaluation plans for each objective, and (d) the cost of each activity. The initial draft of the plan was then discussed, modified, and approved by the school staff. Finally, WSU project staff members examined the plans, modified them as necessary, discussed them, and finally approved them.

Step IV. Implementation

The Fourth Step, Implementation of the Plan, is executed and coordinated by a building level team made up of staff members, including the principal. The staff development activities usually included school visitations, workshops, classroom observations, student reward systems, curriculum development by committees, conferences, and materials preparation.

Step V. Evaluation

The Fifth Step in the SDSI process is Evaluation, where formative (including implementation evaluation) and summative data collected to monitor progress toward the school goal.

Step VI. Reassessment and Continuation

The final step, Reassessment and Continuation, involved the facilitator and school staff in an examination of accomplishments during the year. Following that, attention was given to what they would like to focus on the following year — in essence, a more precise needs assessment for year two. In this step, one or two members of the building level team are often replaced by newly elected staff members to provide opportunity to develop their leadership skills. Finally, a revised or new plan is developed for the next year and submitted to the staff and WSU for approval. The following year begins with the implementation of the new plan.

DOES THE MODEL WORK?

The evaluations of the first two years of the SDSI process found that 82% or more of the teachers in each school observed improvements in knowledge, skills, communication, and participation in decision making. The two most commonly mentioned strengths of the program were (a) intensive involvement and responsibility for the planning of school activities, and (b) improved staff morale. SDSI programs were most successful when (a) activities were conducted during released-time, (b) when there were little staff turnover, and (c) when there were active district and principal support of the team's leadership role.

CASE STUDIES

SDSI at Holbrook Elementary School

At Holbrook School, a staff of 14 work with approximately 270 Black, White, Albanian, and Arab children, 95% of whom participate in the government sponsored free lunch program. The school serves a deteriorating urban neighborhood where unemployment and single-parent families are common.

After 85% of the staff voted to participate in the project, a needs assessment was conducted by the facilitator. The staff chose to review the reading curriculum and investigate instructional methods that would improve student achievement on the Michigan Educational Assessment Test. With the assistance of the university facilitator and the building principal, the team wrote a proposal that incorporated many of the ideas generated by the staff. The plan included three phases: (1) the examination of the MEAP objectives and an analysis of the reading curriculum, (2) learning more effective teaching techniques and (3) individually-designed professional growth activities.

The plan was implemented during the second half of the first year and the entire second year of the project (1981-1982). Grade-level teams worked during released time to examine the test format and objectives to determine the exact learnings necessary to accomplish them. Next, the staff received copies of this information and discussed the implications for classroom practice.

Effective teaching techniques were introduced and practiced at monthly sessions after school. Areas of concentration were teaching to the objective, active participation, motivation, practice, and retention. Each method was practiced in the classrooms between sessions and discussed at the next workshop.

The third part of the Holbrook School Plan was to provide a small amount of money to be used for teachers' self-selected professional growth activities, conferences, workshops, seminars, and visitations. Requests to participate in such activities were submitted to the building level team, and teachers were asked to share their new learnings and materials at regularly scheduled meetings.

After examining evaluation data from each activity, adjustments were made in the planned activities. During assessment, the staff chose to use the same three-phase plan to focus on mathematics during the third and final year of the project, 1983-84.

Holbrook School was one of 19 schools in the State of Michigan to receive an honor for its increased test scores. On the reading portion of the MEAP Test, the percentage of students performing above the average rose from 72% in 1981 to 100% in 1983. As revealed in interviews, the staff felt that this increase resulted directly from the SDSI Project, not from other factors. There were no new programs or staff members in Holbrook school during the three years of the project nor were there significant changes in the makeup of the student population. Other positive outcomes included improved communication among staff members, higher staff morale, and greater interest in trying new teaching techniques.

As a final benefit, the project created a sense of staff ownership of the school and its programs. Although the Wayne State University's SDSI project has ended, the faculty of Holbrook School will continue to use the six-step model for school improvement.

SDSI at Orchard Hills Elementary School

The staff of 22 at Orchard Hills School serve approximately 525 students in a suburb outside of Detroit. The school is clean, well maintained and is located in an all-white middle-class neighborhood.

In spring, 1981, Orchard Hills was nominated by the superintendent to participate in SDSI. Major communication problems existed between the principal and the staff, and student achievement was below the district average. After the staff voted to participate in the six-step process, the university facilitator conducted a needs assessment, resulting in two main goals, improving communication and developing trust among school staff.

Next, the building level team worked with the facilitator to plan activities to meet this goal. Six half-day workshops were conducted, covering team building, staff development as a problem-solving tool, organizational structure, effective communication, and conflict resolution. The staff evaluations indicated that these activities had helped build a more cohesive, mutually supportive staff, and helped the principal improve his management and communication styles.

At the end of the first year, it was decided to spend the next two years focusing on improving teacher productivity and student performance on the MEAP Test. To reach these goals, committees were formed to (1) revise the school's mission statement, (2) evaluate the multi-basal reading approach currently used, (3) to learn about workshops on effective instruction and teacher expectations, and (4) to examine the MEAP Test. As a result of the committee work, four half-day workshops were devoted to learning about Teacher Expectations for Student Achievement (TESA) and Madeline Hunter's Principles of

Effective Instruction. All staff members also worked together to write and modify practice test items for the MEAP.

As a result of these activities, the following strategies were accepted by the staff and put into action: (1) a new reading series was adopted, eliminating the multi-basal approach, (2) the kindergarten program was revised, and (3) a booklet was created that included practice test items and effective instructional practices for improving student achievement.

In June 1984, the Orchard Hills Elementary School received the district's "Outstanding School" Award. The percentage of students achieving the reading objectives on the MEAP Test increased from 77.6% in 1980 to 97.5% in 1983. Although it is possible that other factors accounted for this dramatic increase, it seems unlikely. The school staff and community have remained relatively stable over the past few years, and no program changes have occurred other than the SDSI activities.

The program resulted in benefits for the staff, too. Because of the deliberate attempt to discourage "cliques" from taking over, a committee, teachers who had never really known each other, were seen standing in the corridors discussing committee activities and meetings were held in living rooms and kitchens. The old social interaction patterns were broken and greater collegiality was experienced.

It is interesting to note that the Orchard Hills Staff began the six-step process with a great deal of reluctance, due to the communication barriers in the school. After one year in the program, many teachers were still resistant to the idea; for some of them the workshops on school climate had not yielded a tangible product that they could feel proud of. When the staff began to work together on instructional issues, things began to fall into place. After three years, the teachers and principal appear to be proud of the fact that they have made a visible difference in student learning.

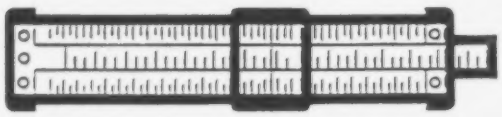
WHY DOES THIS MODEL WORK?

The Wayne State University's SDSI Program is based on the premise that classroom teachers can address their needs best by identifying their own priorities and planning collaboratively to meet those needs. The process, however, does not occur in a vacuum.

The university facilitator also plays a crucial role. He or she helps the staff honestly consider school needs, consider the available options for staff development activities to meet those needs, develop a realistic plan, and implement the plan in a timely and integrated manner. Where this assistance has not been provided in a consistent and competent manner, the six-step process has been less effective. This is true especially at the beginning; often the external assistance becomes less necessary as the resources for guiding the process are developed within the school and district.

Another critical feature of the SDSI Model, of course, was the money. Many teachers in the project have said that they have never been given the responsibility to design and implement anything, let alone, the money to do it with! "We believe you can do something important. Go for it!" The most frequent comment teachers made about SDSI is that it enabled them to be involved in school decisions. This involvement was welcomed like a breath of fresh air.

The biggest lesson we can learn from the SDSI Program is that teachers can be a powerful force for school change when they are allowed to take part in rational problem-solving and responsible, widely shared decision making. Boyer (1984) has concluded that one of the most powerful forces for the improvement of American education is the development of teachers' skills and feelings of power and professionalism. Staff Development for School Improvement offers a promising process for developing greater excellence in American schools.



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ERIC Digest.

Everyday Acts: Staff Development through Informal Supervision

Barbara McEvoy

Principals often complain that their effectiveness and ability to launch innovative curriculum or major staff development programs are hampered by their daily routine. Although principals spend the bulk of their day communicating with teachers, parents, and students, that communication is fragmented (Martin and Willower, 1981). Ten-minute conversations are the exception, two-minute exchanges the rule. This digest describes how the brief, broken and spontaneous nature of principals' communications can, in fact, be used as a subtle and effective means to promote staff development.

What Is Informal Supervision?

Informal supervision is any supervision that takes place spontaneously, without connection to evaluation or announced observations and conferences. Principals and most watchful teachers informally supervise the halls as they walk from one place to the next; as they scan classes while walking past them; while actively teaching; or while they sit at their desks marking papers. In these situations there is not an announced intent to "find something wrong" or to "evaluate the situation," but if the principal or teacher sees something that deserves comment, good or bad, that comment will be made immediately, spontaneously.

How Does Informal Supervision Relate to Staff Development?

Principals, because of the nature of their position and job requirements, can move freely in and out of classrooms, walk in the halls and lunchrooms, and talk informally with students and staff before, during, and after school. Although principals are not formally supervising during these casual interactions, they are observing and acting on their observations. If their demeanor is casual at these times, their presence is noticed but not intimidating. The quick exchanges that occur in these informal situations can convey concern, support, and suggestions for improvement in a less threatening manner than would be possible during formal meetings and conferences. Because teachers are not likely to be defensive during these informal exchanges, they are more open to suggestions and more likely to listen and learn than they would be in formal meetings in which they would feel the need to explain and defend. And because of their brevity, these informal exchanges can be more frequent and more pervasive than formal exchanges. Informal supervision can be consciously used to subtly and effectively improve instruction.

How Does It Work?

An extensive research study of principals showed that effective principals used their casual interactions with teachers to make suggestions and ask questions that ultimately affected the classroom behaviors of the teachers (McEvoy, 1987). Principals who were consciously aware of their techniques said they were "planting seeds" or "pulling" their teachers. Whether these informal supervisory comments and suggestions were used intuitively or consciously, analysis of literally thousands of principals' conversations and teachers' reports showed that the comments and suggestions fell into six categories of interactions. Many were personally aimed at specific teachers, many were initially aimed at groups of teachers, but all were ultimately pursued at a personal level.

What Are the Specific Categories of Interactions?

In subtle and not so subtle ways, the principals in the study encouraged teacher development by:

- Informing teachers of professional opportunities:

  Principals routinely passed on to teachers items of interest regarding local and state workshops that teachers might be interested in attending, contests that their students might participate in, lectures that were relevant to teachers, or school interests and problems.

- Disseminating professional and curriculum materials:

  Principals duplicated and distributed articles, handed out curriculum materials, lent books to individual teachers, and set up displays for their faculties in central locations. They followed through with questions and mini-discussions of the materials they distributed.

- Focusing staff attention on a specific theme:

  Principals chose curriculum themes (writing across the curriculum, problem solving, pleasure reading) and slogans ("Help them feel good about themselves," "Are there better ways?") that they emphasized in their conversations, in-service activities, and handouts. One principal had his teachers vote on a new theme each year. Such focused emphasis promoted awareness and teacher participation.

- Soliciting teachers' opinions:

  Principals sought to locate and solve instructional problems in their schools by questioning teachers about their classroom

activities, their feelings concerning school and classroom issues, and their views of certain materials. Soliciting teacher opinion not only encouraged the teachers to face and respond to problems and gain confidence in their own ability to find solutions, it also gave the principals useful feedback.

- Encouraging experimentation:

  Principals asked teachers to invite them in to observe the "different and unique" lessons they attempted. Essentially they asked the teachers to "show off." One principal excused his teachers from formal evaluation when they worked on learning new techniques or developed new units, but he was present and supportive during his teachers' learning and experimenting processes. Teachers were willing to move out of their "ruts" because they knew they could count on their principal's support and appeared to enjoy the attention that experimentation brought them.

- Recognizing individual teachers' achievements:

  Principals went beyond support and encouragement for teacher experimentation by actually facilitating teacher exchanges and publicly recognizing individual teacher's achievements. Teachers gave workshops on what they were doing well; they were publicized in school and local newspapers for their innovative projects; and other teachers were given the opportunity to observe their classes.

Why Does It Work?

Research shows that much good and relevant curriculum development is incremental in nature (Walker and Hirst, 1975). Research on teacher change shows that change is a slow process that requires time and is dependent on principal support (Sarason, 1982; Miller and Wolf, 1979). In particular, coaching has been noted as a crucial element in promoting new and improved instructional techniques (Joyce and Showers, 1980). These subtle and brief communication techniques permit principals to maintain meaningful supervisory contact with teachers while performing their everyday routine.

For More Information

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A Principal's Role In Supporting Teachers As Staff Developers

By finding ways to encourage and support professional growth, one new principal fostered an atmosphere of collegiality in which teachers took increased responsibility for their own staff development.

CAROL A. SARABUN

How does a new principal preserve a staff's sense of satisfaction in its work while at the same time ensuring that the school, its programs, and its teachers continue to grow in positive, productive ways? This was my concern two years ago when I walked into New Lebanon School for the first time — new to the building, staff, and to the job of principal. I inherited a well-managed building with a competent staff. Teachers sought to preserve the school's current organization, whih they credited with creating a positive climate in which children worked hard and progressed reasonably. I wanted to nurture this climate while encouraging continued professional growth. Specfically, I sought to develop norms of collegiality and experimentation so that teachers would become their own staff developers (Little, 1981).

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Encourage Involvement

My first goal was to ensure that teachers in my school valued, sought out, and became involved in staff development activities. Because I believe that a sense of excitement and renewal is created when teachers find time away from their everyday responsibilities to attend workshops and conferences, I began by encouraging teachers to attend staff development activities outside of the school system. Since the Greenwich (CT) Public Schools have an extensive well-structured, and highly successful system-sponsored staff development program, most staff members already recognized the value of such activities. Thus, it was easy to encourage all teachers to watch for appropriate opportunities outside of the system as well. I hoped participation in these activities would not only expose teachers to a variety of viewpoints and new ideas, but would also present the chance for teachers to share ideas with newly met colleagues. I shared notices of workshops and conferences with individuals for whom the programs would be especially suitable because of interests or personal goals for the year.

To convey the value I placed on attending professional activities, I modeled this behavior myself, actively seeking appropriate workshops or conferences and sharing information afterward with my staff. I also made connections between the workshops and conferences and my own personal goals for the year and shared these connections with the staff.

Financial support for teachers to attend out-of-system activities was provided by several sources, including the school budget, various school system accounts, and the teachers themselves. I arranged the necessary released time by hiring substitute teachers, encouraging teachers to take classes for each other, teaching classes myself, or bringing in appropriate system—level coordinators to work with students.

To convey the value I placed on attending professional activities, I modeled this behavior myself.

Building Collegiality

I attempted to build collegiality in two ways. First, I encouraged teachers to share their staff development experiences during

each faculty meeting. At first, teachers used these sessions simply to identify what they were doing or what staff development sessions they had attended. Occasionally, materials were duplicated and shared. The sessions have gradually grown more substantive, with teachers regularly sharing both ideas and materials. Some faculty meetings have been built on the results of teachers' staff development experiences. During the past two years, virtually every staff member has attended out-of-system programs and shared something with others on the staff.

The second way I attempted to build collegiality was through the formation of a staff development committee. During that first year, I began to encourage teachers to become involved in designing staff development programs for the school. By forming a staff development committee, I hoped to allow representative teachers to gather regularly to share ideas and plan staff development activities to be conducted during early-release afternoons. To accommodate the increasing list of topics of interest, I allocated some of our regular faculty meetings for staff development purposes. By the end of the first year, in response to staff suggestions, we agreed that all faculty meetings would be devoted to staff development activities. Regular business would be conducted through memos and daily bulletins as much as possible.

Today, the staff development committee is the major force in planning building activities, monitoring and suggesting other staff development opportunities, and allocating building funds. A survey conducted at the end of the school year is used to evaluate general feelings about events held that year, and another survey at the beginning of the new school year helps select the focus for the next 10 months. I usually take the responsibility for planning the first faculty meeting each month to keep the staff informed of current topics in education and other matters of importance to the total staff.

In the past year, we have held meetings on such topics as parent/teacher conferencing, teaching children to think mathematically, cooperative learning, education from the learning disabled child's point of view, and an overview of the current literature in education. The staff development committee establishes the topics of its meetings at the beginning of the year, while I plan throughout the year in response to current needs and interests. In this manner, we have been able to both respond to topics which may arise suddenly, as well as stay informed on broader issues of importance or concern to the staff, school system, or education in general.

The staff development committee is the major force in planning building activities, monitoring and suggesting other staff development opportunities, and allocating building funds.

Creating Support for Experimentation

Another development growing out of the teachers' increasing commitment to staff development was the emergence of support groups for various teacher interests. The most notable of these was a support group on cooperative learning. Several staff members had been trained in and were quite enthusiastic about cooperative learning techniques. As I observed their different approaches to using cooperative learning in their classrooms, I became enthusiastic about finding ways to encourage them to share experiences. My initial suggestion that they observe each other or use videotapes to share classes was not accepted.

Instead, the teachers formed a support group which met periodically for activities chosen by members. These activities included reading and discussion groups, meeting with David Johnson (one of the leading authors in the area of cooperative learning), and sharing approaches to lessons. At the end of the year, I invited the group to a working dinner at my home to discuss the goals they hoped to accomplish in the next year. One example of such a goal was to identify the social skills which would be emphasized at each grade level in the cooperative learning groups so that teachers each year could build on what had been taught the year before.

In its second year, this support group became more cohesive as staff members looked forward to sharing concerns and ideas at its regular meetings. The group included in its agenda a wider range of staff development activities, most notably a series of observation days during which members observed each other and discussed what they saw. One staff member agreed to serve as group leader, and, under her direction, the group has now ventured more regularly into peer observation and anticipates establishing peer coaching partnerships.

The collegiality developed in the the support group has been professionally and personally rewarding for the teachers as they share ideas, talk over problems, and take the risk of exploring new areas of professional involvement. Two other support groups are also evolving in our school: one in which experiences based on the Madeline Hunter strategies are shared, and another comprised of teachers who have received special training in science.

A recent example of teacher-initiated staff development is our current exploration of integrated language arts. When I originally sought teachers interested in the topic, a small group responded. This group met to decide how to learn about integrated language arts and to pinpoint anticipated needs in pursuing this interest during the upcoming year. From one of their suggestions — the need for a resource person in the building to provide some support — grew a differentiated staffing position in language arts. This position was proposed to the administration, funded, and is now being more fully developed with the help of the committee. It will become yet another staff development opportunity for a teacher. Under the leadership provided by the teacher who obtains

The teachers formed a support group which met periodically for activities chosen by members.

the position, interested teachers will spend a year learning about integrated language arts programs, planning staff development activities in support of these efforts, and designing a pilot program to experiment with some of their ideas.

Benefits of Increased Collegiality and Willingness to Experiment

As teachers in my school have become increasingly active in seeking, planning, and attending staff development activities, additional benefits have resulted. One result has been increased leadership opportunities, in addition to the differentiated staffing position already described. In spite of being a small staff whose members are often overburdened by the need to serve on numerous school- and district-level committees, many individuals have agreed to assume responsibility for leading the school's various efforts. Although some teachers at first were reluctant to play this new role, many have assumed committee or support group leadership roles and felt they have grown with the experience. This increasing willingness to take risks was described by one teacher who said, "You have gently guided me into 'reaching' and 'stretching' myself."

A second result is a reduction in isolation among teachers. This change is demonstrated in part by the number of people who are setting joint goals. Each year, as part of the school system's appraisal program, all staff members establish personal goals. In New Lebanon School, people have formalized their efforts to learn more about or experiment with various aspects of teaching by joining together in partnerships and establishing mutual goals.

Other positive results of our staff development emphasis are more predictable. Morale is described by teachers as high, primarily because they are sharing with each other in professional ways. Individuals are more willing to take risks by trying new ideas and are more open in sharing and analyzing failures and successes. Partnerships are being created for specific needs and around the special interests and strengths of individual staff members. These partnerships have grown in some instances to more formalized teaming of teachers — for some, a new experience. Other staff members have discovered a larger teacher network, including people from other buildings and other systems. A broader understanding exists of the school as a whole and the part each grade level plays in the total K-6 education of children. And, most importantly, there is constantly growing expertise.

Many teachers assumed committee or support group leadership roles and felt they grew from the experience.

Conclusion

When I arrived as the new principal, existing conditions in my school allowed our staff development programs to build and expand as teachers' involvement grew. The willingness of the staff to try ideas and examine the results openly and honestly, their previous good experiences with staff development activities, and the security and competence present among the personnel in this building made the climate conducive to much of what has happened during the past two years.

As the principal, I made decisions and provided administrative support to encourage teacher involvement in staff development activities, to build collegiality, and to create support for experimentation. The results have been significant. Furthermore, the sense of excitement and pride in the constant professional growth of our staff has become a major incentive toward a continuing demand for staff development activities.

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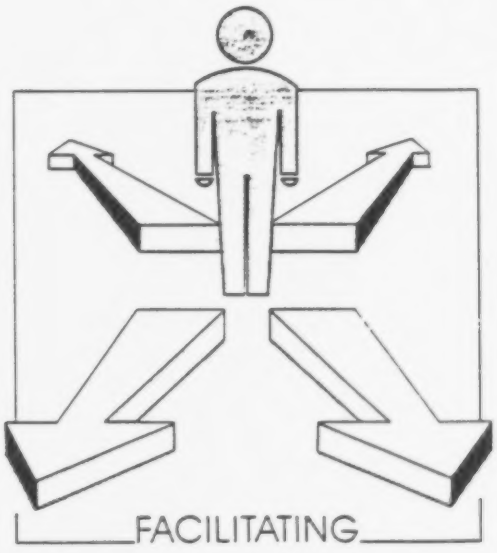

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East Texas School Study Council.

Inservice Education Programs for Principals Promotes Effective Change

by:
Dr. Virginia W. Gerald
Dr. Charles A. Sloan

The public today continues to demand accountability in education. Private citizens and public figures alike are calling for improved schooling. School administrations, sensitive to these demands and concerned with increasing effectiveness, are looking for ways to further develop their employees, both faculty and staff. Many researchers have indicated that the behavior of the school principal is the single most important factor supporting high quality educational programs (Austen, Rutter).[1] Brookover and Lezotte[2] found that, in "improving" schools, the principal was much more likely to be an instructional leader and to be assertive in that role. Edmond's[3] "Search for Effective Schools" project highlighted the role of the principal as a instructional leader and included strong leadership by the principal in that role as one vital feature of an effective school. Fostering positive change in principals' behavior as it related to instructional leadership, then, is desirable. If this is true, how can this best occur? Can the district administration be the initiaing force in such change? What might a program look like that was aimed at improving principals' instructional leadership skills? And what outcomes might be expected?

Vann[4] has shown that school districts (central office administrators) can indeed influence principals' actions. His study revealed that principals tended to commit their time and energies to all facets of their job according to the priority of those functions which they perceived to be held by their superiors. A recent case study conducted by the authors described a comprehensive staff development program which did exert a positive influence on principals. The program's purpose was to increase the principals' skills in fostering instructional improvement. A study of this Chicago area suburban elementary school district revealed interesting answers to each of those questions suggested above.

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The staff development program developed by the Wheeling, Illinois Consolidated Public School District was founded on the tenets outlined by Madeline Hunter[1] in her model for clinical supervision. This program was designed to enable school principals to become more effective in developing and refining their teachers' instructional skills. Principals were trained to recognize and apply theories and techniques which research has shown promote increased student learning. They also were trained to analyze and diagnose teaching, to plan and execute instructional conferences with teachers whose teaching was observed and to further suggest options which might augment future lessons.

The program arose out of a need recognized by the superintendent and principals that the current supervisory system lacked structure and solid research-based content. In an effort to move from simply rating and ranking teaching, the administration set out to work toward continually improving the quality of instruction. Implementation of the program occurred in stages. First, the administrators were trained in each facet of the Hunter model, then, in turn, instructed their faculties through school inservice sessions. The model included elements pertinent to effective teaching, such as motivation theory, reinforcement theory, retention theory, transfer theory, effective lesson designing, diagnostic and prescriptive teaching, hemisphericity, and extending students' thinking to higher levels of complexity. Also included for principals were elements pertinent to effective communication and conference planning.

Administrators attended 10 full-day inservice sessions spaced out over a ten month period in which they received initial instructions and had opportunities for practice in applying the teaching and conferencing skills they were learning. Next, administrators continued to receive half-day inservice sessions on a monthly basis. In addition, they began practicing their new skills in their own school buildings, as they observed teaching, and in collegial peer group meetings. They were able to refine their skills as they received individual feedback from peers and from the trainer on their teaching and analysis skills and on their conferencing techniques.

Once principals were able to apply the theories and techniques they learned in their own practice teaching lessons, they began to (1) conduct inservice sessions for their faculty members on these topics and (2) conduct instructional conferences with individual teachers.

Two years into the project, a survey was conducted which asked for principals' perceptions of changes they had experienced in their knowledge and skills related to instructional supervision. Over 75% of the principals reported they had greatly increased their knowledge in every category in which they had received training, particularly in those areas related to planning an instructional conference and giving specific feedback to a teacher during a conference. Principals also reported a great increase in the frequency of their involvement in instructional supervision activities: (1) over 75% of principals observed teaching much more often and conducted follow-up instructional conferences with teachers after such visits. (2) over 75% of principals conducted inservice sessions for their faculties from 5 to 8 times a year (which was an increase from just 2 to 4 times a year before implementations of the model).

Teachers were also asked for their perceptions of those interactions which took place between them and their teaching. The majority (74%) of teachers rated highly the extent to which their conference discussions with their principals dealt with effective teaching methods or strategies. Further, the extent to which teachers acquired new information from their principal about positive, effective aspects of their teaching was noted by 77%. The majority (60%) of teachers viewed their instructional conferences as worthwhile experiences.

The study also explored the impact of the program on the way principals viewed and reported on a teachers' total performance. Comparisons were made of teachers summative evaluation reports written by principals both before and after training had occurred. Those reports written by the same principal on the same teachers' performance both before and after the principal received training were analyzed for content. A district-developed criterion for judging instructional effectiveness was used as the standard for comparing the two sets of reports. This criterion listed 21 elements in three categories: classroom climate, instructional planning and performance, and classroom management. It was found that 10 out of a possible 24 pre-training ratings were significantly different from post-training ratings. Principals noted (either being used appropriately or inappropriately) more elements of effective teaching on evaluations they wrote after they had received training in the Hunter model.

Of the three categories of criteria, the greatest differences occurred in the area of instructional planning and performance where three out of a possible six comparision scores were significant. This data substantiates the report that principals made wherein they viewed themselves as being more skilled at recognizing elements of effective

teaching. The instruction in the Hunter model had aided them in most areas, particularly in the elements related to planning for teaching and in executing the teaching act itself.

This study revealed that a comprehensive staff development program initiated by the administration and supported by the board of education can positively influence principals' behavior in instructional leadership. Principals who are confident in their ability to aid teachers in the improvement of teaching and learning are positive educational leaders.

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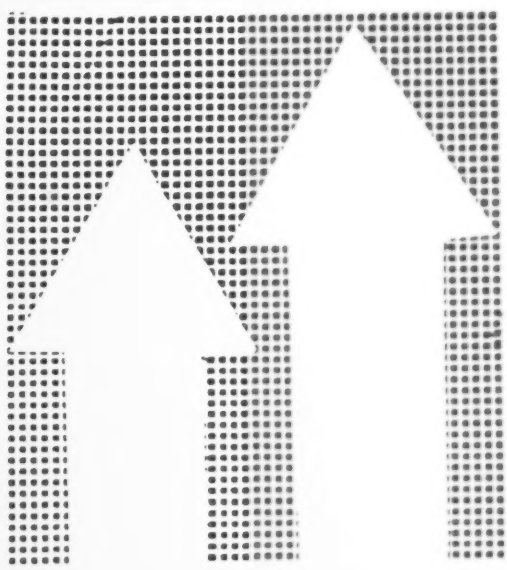

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RURAL INSERVICE USING ALTERNATE SCHEDULING

A Presentation to

The National Council of States
on Inservice Education

November 21-25, 1986
Nashville, Tennessee

by

James L. Kimmet, Superintendent
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Introduction

In very small school districts it is difficult to find time to implement inservice programs for teachers because of the many demands made on their time.

For, example, in a small district high school with fewer than twenty teachers it is still necessary that all the sports teams be coached, the plays directed, the clubs sponsored, and the curriculum developed. Nearly all teachers in such schools serve dual and triple roles. Many of these functions are performed both during and after the regular school day and often on weekends.

As a result of this loading of staff, only the immediate and pressing functions are properly performed. Consequently, staff development and curriculum development activities are often left undone or done in a cursory fashion if they are done at all.

At the same time, the students of small rural schools require quality educational services equal to or better than those of nonrural students. Delivery of quality programs in the rural setting also requires equal planning and implementation effort.

The development of teachers to meet the challenges of providing good instruction is also equally important, if not more important, because of the need for rural school teachers to be generalists rather than specialists within each area taught.

Due to time and financial constraints, inservice in many rural schools is also neglected or at best is a series of "one shot" day-long sessions with an imported expert with little or no follow-up to the session. These are generally acknowledged to not

be very effective for long-term results. Well-planned and implemented inservice programs are difficult to provide because of the time commitments of the staff.

The Alternative Scheduling Concept

In seeking an answer to the problem of how to provide quality staff development activities, the author considered a variety of approaches and decided to use an alternative schedule. The use of an alternative schedule provided several benefits:

1. Time for inservice activities on a regular basis at no additional cost to school district.

2. Time for staff "necessary" absences, such as for medical or business appointments, providing for more teacher contact time with students.

3. Time for staff development and curriculum development meetings without intruding on activity or private time.

4. Time for student "necessary" absences, such as for medical or business appointments resulting in less student absences.

5. Increased family time for students.

Several of these benefits do not relate directly to staff development, but they do relate to improvement of instructional effectiveness and were perceived as additional reasons implementing this program.

There were also several disbenefits that were perceived as part of the alternative scheduling concept:

1. Most inservice activities would have to fit into a narrow time frame of approximately two hours or extend into activity and private time.

2. The inservice programs would occur during the least productive time of the day, late afternoon, after a nearly full day of teaching.

3. Unless the released time was used productively, staff would resent the fact that they did not have a short work day also.

4. Working parents would need additional child care on early dismissal days.

Several alternative schedules were studied. These included the four-day week, the four and a half day week, and the partial alternative schedule. Because most of the alternatives had primarily been designed for other purposes than for the provision of staff development time, the criteria for selection were also different. As a result of the study of the various alternatives, it was decided to implement a short schedule one day per week which approximated, but did not exactly equal a four and one-half day week.

The schedule for a typical week appears as Appendix A. Note that it delivers the amount of instructional time normally delivered in 175 six hour days each year, by lengthening four days and shortening one. In one district in which the author worked, the shortened day was Thursday. In two others, the shortened day was Friday.

Selling the Proposal

In Wyoming, alternative schedules of any type were declared to be unlawful by district courts in 1983. In the 1985 legislative session alternative schedules were made legal provided they were adopted after two local hearings and approved by the State Board of Education. Renewal of the program is to occur only after an extensive evaluation of the program and another local hearing.

In Montana, the other state in which the author implemented alternative schedules, local board approval was all that was necessary. Even so, adoption was a lengthy process designed to ensure public support.

The principal concerns of faculty, patrons, and Board members observed by the author were the following:

1. Lengthening of an already long school day for students who ride buses long distances (up to forty-five miles each way). Part of the reason for adopting a modified four and one-half day week was to allow for no change in current bus schedules. This negated this objection to a longer school day.

2. Classroom schedules at the secondary level were changed to meet the new schedule and faculty members sometimes had difficulty adjusting to the different times. This problem took care of itself after about six weeks under a new schedule.

3. Bus drivers, most of whom had other employment, had difficulty meeting their short-day afternoon schedules due to other work commitments. This problem required adjustments on the part of the drivers.

4. Working parents had to arrange for additional daycare for their children. This was not a major problem in any of the communities in which the schedule was adopted, but in one of the Montana communities the local Future Homemakers of America Chapter provided daycare for some of the children as a club money-making project.

The proposal required the approval of all the various publics involved. These included the teaching and support staff, the Board, parents, and the students. Informational meetings

were held with "brainstorming" sessions to refine the concept to meet the needs of the local district. A major component was how the released time would be used by each of the various groups involved in the school. This is the stage at which the inservice component was introduced to staff. Care was taken at this point to see that staff was involved in the needs assessment and the designing of the inservice program to meet specified school district goals and priorities.

Planning the Inservice Program

Once the program was approved, implementation and planning of the inservice activities was undertaken. The companion presentation to this one, by Dr. Susan Clark, outlines the processes followed in the district to ascertain needs and design the programs.

The Inservice Program

A two-year program of inservice activities was set up. The first year objective was to introduce the elements of instruction through the Madeline Hunter model and provide a series of short teacher welfare and special topics presentations for follow-up the second year. The second year program was designed to implement the elements of instruction, Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement (TESA), and thinking skills techniques.

It was a goal of the project to offer at least two inservice programs per month and to have all staff members receive at least thirty clock hours of instruction during the year. The time was

also to be used for curriculum study and instructional problem solving, as well. The following listing shows scheduling for the first year of the project:

9/20 Orientation meeting
9/27 Tort Law for Teachers
10/11 Curriculum meeting - General Planning Session
10/18 Special Education referrals and legal requirements
10/25 Computers in the Classroom - Introduction
11/1 Word Processing in the Classroom
11/8 Writing Activities for the Classroom
11/22 Time management for teachers and students
12/6 Approaches to school discipline
12/13 Teaching special students in the classroom
1/10 Understanding Wyoming School Finance
1/17 Elements of Instruction I
1/24 Elements of Instruction II
1/31 Elements of Instruction III
2/7 Teacher made tests I
2/14 Teacher made tests II
2/21 Teacher made tests III
2/28 Learning Styles
3/7 Child Abuse and the School
3/14 Effective Schools I
3/21 Effective Schools II
4/4 Modality Based Instruction (Barbe)
4/11 Curriculum Wrap-up Meeting
4/18 Evaluation and Planning for Next Year

Because not all staff were interested or needed to participate in all but a few mandatory sessions (e.g. Elements of Instruction), nearly all sessions were voluntary. However, whenever a session was being offered teachers were required to be in the building working and not away from the building. This kept attendance at a high level, but allowed teachers to do other work if they felt the inservice was not appropriate.

Several of the programs (e.g. the writing and computer sessions) were introductory sessions appropriate for all staff and followed by extension courses offered through an area community college or the University of Wyoming. Using the session as a recruitment device ensured the ability to bring

college credit programs to our campus.

Nearly all the inservices were conducted using local, inexpensive resources, or in the case of one or two, local persons were sent from the district to be trained and then returned to train the other staff. The total cost for the entire program was approximately $2000, including the training.

Results and Conclusions

The alternate schedule proved to be a qualified success as an inservice device. The district had set an informal goal of thirty clock hours of inservice for each staff member. This was met by 67% of the staff. All the staff had at least 25 hours of inservice training during the Friday sessions.

The staff felt that the program, while intended to be introductory the first year, was too fragmented and that the series all pertaining to one topic (E.g. Teacher Made Tests) were most effective. They opted to be involved in implementing effective schools concepts and in the TESA workshops in the ensuing year. It was also decided to offer credit classes during the inservice sessions in science activities and thinking skills.

The were other benefits of the program. Student attendance improved slightly, from 95.7% to 96.3%, but time lost due to activity travel was reduced from 706 student day equivalents (SDE) to 559 SDE. Teacher attendance also improved from 97.5% to 98.8% with a 25% reduction in lost activity days.

The major disbenefit of the program was that a large number of staff members also wanted the time off even though their work day was not lengthened Monday through Thursday. Parents were

overwhelmingly favorable to the program, with the only complaints being related to daycare.

As a result of the evaluation of the project and the support of the staff and patrons, the program was approved for an additional two years by the local Board and the Wyoming Board of Education.

APPENDIX A

Typical Weekly Schedule

Monday	8:15-12:00	12:45-3:30	6:30
Tuesday	8:15-12:00	12:45-3:30	6:30
Wednesday	8:15-12:00	12:45-3:30	6:30
Thursday	8:15-12:00	12:45-3:30	6:30
Friday	8:15-12:00	12:45-1:40	4:30
	Total		30:30

SECTION 3

STAFF DEVELOPMENT THROUGH COLLABORATIONS AND PARTNERSHIPS

Reprinted with permission from The Regional Laboratory. Excerpted from Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development. Susan Loucks-Horsley, Catherine Harding, Margaret Arbuckle, Lynn Murray, Cynthia Dubea and Martha Williams. Andover, MA, and Oxford, OH: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands and the National Staff Development Council. Available from The Regional Laboratory, 290 South Main Stree, Andover, MA 01810, (508) 470-0098.

Networks

For the last several years, a group of administrators and teachers from northern Vermont has been focusing on school improvement. Effective schools literature and their own experiences led this core group to build an informal network for the give and take of information. They believed that by sharing human and financial resources, especially for staff development, all would benefit. They saw this sharing as a way to improve education for all students in their schools.

This informal network became known as the Northwest Outcomes-Based Network. Members of the network share a set of common beliefs regarding the Mastery Learning model of instruction and outcomes-based instructional design. As the core group of educational leaders grew enthusiastic in their commitment to the approach, they encouraged others to learn about it. Teachers and administrators talked over beliefs, shared research, and visited Johnson City, New York, to see the design in action. School board members, teacher trainers, and researchers grew interested and supportive. School boards took time to consider the belief system of outcomes-based education, and some adopted it as policy. Teachers, charged with a belief that all students can learn what we teach them, started to change classroom practices according to their needs and inclinations. Curricula were scrutinized to determine what was absolutely necessary for advancement to the next grade, what was appropriate enrichment for those who mastered objectives.

Staff development was revitalized as faculties grappled with challenges posed by the equality of opportunity for all students. Teachers and administrators jointly planned and delivered professional development experiences and opportunities designed to encourage implementation of outcomes-based educational practices. Administrators met frequently to share progress and problems and to organize joint staff development experiences for their teachers and them-

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Staff development was revitalized as faculties grappled with challenges posed by the equality of opportunity for all students. Teachers and administrators jointly planned and delivered professional development experiences and opportunities designed to encourage implementation of outcomes-based educational practices. Administrators met frequently to share progress and problems and to organize joint staff development experiences for their teachers and themselves. Many teachers participated as speakers, panel members, and facilitators at joint inservice days for network schools. They talked shop with colleagues. Teachers coached teachers, shared lesson plans, visited each other's classrooms, discussed and problem-solved in their efforts to implement the new practices (Denny & Hood, 1986).

As the above portrayal illustrates, a network is a professional community that is organized around a common theme or purpose. Richard Haight defines a network as "a pattern of interaction. . . characterized by information exchange, usually leading to other human interactions." Network members have something in common and communicate about it (in McConkey & Crandall, 1985, p. 30). Hedin's (1984) research on networks suggests that successful networks have members who are committed to a new idea or philosophy and who feel commitment and loyalty to each other. A sense of equality and generosity develops, manifesting itself in the sharing of personal and professional support given voluntarily. Members demonstrate spontaneity, flexibility, and informality in their contacts with other network members. An atmosphere of openness and sharing helps members to see each other as fellow problem solvers from whom they are willing to ask for help.

Underlying Assumptions

Meaningful improvement in educational programs occurs best when members of an educational community share common beliefs and work together as equals toward common goals.

A networking approach fosters the development of a professional community, developing norms of collegiality, continuous improvement, and experimentation. Common interests, experiences, and frequent interaction result in the development of a common language that encourages frequent communication about improvement—shop talk. Teachers are no longer isolated in their classrooms struggling alone with instructional decisions and problems. Active network members have access to a variety of opportunities for peer support in their efforts to experiment with the new ideas and practices that focus their professional community.

A networking approach builds the capacity of its members to identify and solve their own problems.

Shared training and follow-up activities increase the knowledge pool within the network. Network members become engaged with the language and practice of a particular approach. As they grapple with their

growing understanding, reflect and discuss their experimentation and implementation, they begin to take on educational leadership roles themselves. They participate in coaching and training one another. They may deliver workshops or write newsletter articles in which they share their learnings and successes. With every success and its recognition, their professionalism is heightened. They continue to grapple with improvements and implementation of the new practices, but with an increasing sense of efficacy and confidence in their individual and collective ability to identify and solve their own problems and effect improvements that work within their context.

What They Look Like in Practice

Networks may emerge spontaneously, or they may be more consciously created by one or two people. Hedin (1984) describes spontaneous network formation as beginning with isolated innovators, change agents, problem solvers who discover their shared interests and concerns usually through contact at meetings or conferences. Eventually, they say "Why don't we have a meeting?" They form an informal network, coordinated by one or two organizers. They develop some sort of name for themselves, clarify their purpose, designate facilitators, and arrange to have meetings with some regularity.

McConkey and Crandall (1984) describe the stages for more conscious creation of a network as

1. the group determines a purpose;
2. they determine who might be contacted to help achieve that purpose;
3. they make contact with others around the determined purpose; and
4. they recontact one another.

However networks are formed, once formed they are based on interactions—exchanging information and providing moral/professional support. A common language and body of practices emerge as network members continue to share their experiences and problem-solve their implementation attempts. Members engage in frequent formal and informal communication regarding their learnings, problems, and successes.

A hallmark of a successful professional development network is the provision of a variety of ways to encourage information sharing, collegial problem solving, and recognition of progress and success toward network goals. Networks might include any or all of the following supportive activities:

- a collaborative calendar, emphasizing joint inservice days
- a newsletter about accomplishments and coming events
- classroom exchanges and visitation among network members
- discussion groups that provide opportunities for problem sharing and solution finding for members
- frequent sharing of materials to further the application of the new practices, e.g., units, books, articles, videos.

Conditions Necessary for Success

McConkey and Crandall (1984) suggest a set of five essentials for effective networks:

1. *Keeping a focus:* Members should be wary of losing sight of the purpose for the network. New interests and more complex relationships may emerge through networking, but as the principal intent of its formation becomes less clear, the greater the chance the network will cease to meet its members' needs.

2. *Staying in touch:* A network is not a network without communication. Members should make it a point to touch base every few weeks or months with other members.

3. *Keeping it small:* A network needs to be small in order to encourage frequent communication. Even very active networkers are more successful within multiple, small, focused networks than within single, giant ones. Networks may overlap, but each should be "bitesized and workable."

4. *Keeping it simple and cheap:* The strength, endurance, and effectiveness of a network is often directly related to its lack of complexity and the low cost of active participation.

5. *Reciprocating:* Networkers need to be able to count on each other. A lack of commitment and loyalty, as well as a lack of frequent communication, will result in dissolution of the network. Hedin (1984) expands on the importance of reciprocating. She identifies

the following critical conditions for successful networking:

- a commitment to the purpose
- a commitment to each other
- a sense of openness and caring
- information never used at the expense of another network member
- personal and psychological support
- voluntary participation
- equal treatment for everyone.

Benefits

Networking expands the boundaries of its members and reduces isolation from peers. Networking results in increased communication among/between levels of the system. Internal and external team building are encouraged. Opportunities are provided for access to each other's experience and to authoritative practical knowledge. It also provides opportunities for the sharing of ideas on classroom and curriculum practice.

Network training and information sharing activities create an expanded pool of knowledgeable and skilled people who have confidence in their knowledge base, encouraging the development of a common language and continued growth in practice. Norms of professionalism and collegiality are supported. Active network participants experience a greater sense of efficacy. As local human resources are developed, so is the local capacity for identification and resolution of local problems and needs.

Lastly, networking provides opportunities for recognition of progress toward school improvement goals and for celebration of individual accomplishments that further the vision and direction of network members.

Commentary

Networks, by their nature, are informal structures whose members vary the extent and intensity of their participation as they please. This has both advantages and disadvantages from the point of view of the overall staff development program. The advantages include the availability of a wide variety of resources from a large number of sources. This serves the needs of proactive teachers, particularly ones with specific, well-defined needs and a good sense of what could meet those needs. However, while networks surround the individual with possible resources, they work less well for passive people—ones who are less clear of their needs and what will help them. Even in a highly supportive network, less articulate members are less likely to benefit. However, a network that has some proactive components, such as inservice offerings and topical events, or one that is part of an overall inservice program that includes more active, engaging approaches, has the potential for meeting a wide range of professional development needs.

Related to this issue is the need for some strong glue for a network—some one or some organization that takes a leadership and management role in keeping the connections alive and feeding them with new knowledge, information, and opportunities. While people often picture networks as creating invisible bonds between individuals that are activated only when someone needs something, those needs can be stimulated and activity and energy generated quite beneficially. However, that has to be a role somebody plays on purpose, or the potential of a network may never be realized. In fact, it is essential if the people, the knowledge, and the experiences that reside in network members are to be taken full advantage of.

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Partnerships

> *A partnership is like a marriage in which each partner complements the other in achieving what neither can achieve alone. In a partnership as in a marriage, there are mutual rights and responsibilities depending on each party's willingness to collaborate and to give up a measure of independence. . . . They enter into a formal agreement to engage in activity together—in other words, to get married. There is no need for them to get married if either one of them has the whole ball game, but since neither of them does, they need to collaborate (Goodlad, 1986).*

The most startling thing about partnerships for teacher development is how varied they are. These variations are quite evident in the following examples, some of them school/university partnerships, and others, school/business partnerships.

The University of Vermont has joined with schools to support staff development through the formation of school improvement collaboratives. In the collaboratives, participants can earn master's degrees through course work directly tied to local school improvement projects. University personnel assist school personnel in identifying their needs, developing a common vision for school improvement, and developing the programs and skills necessary to carry out that vision. Teachers and administrators take courses and attend training institutes, most of which are offered at the school. All courses carry with them projects that are directly related to previously identified school improvement directions and development goals. Technical assistance services for fine-tuning and integrating locally designed improvement projects are made available as needed. Teachers who have completed research and/or other technical courses often become consultants and trainers in their own or neighboring districts (Clark & Hood, 1986).

The University of Alabama and the Regional Consortium for Professional Development (made up of 12 adjoining school districts) have joined in a partnership that provides in-depth, voluntary weekend workshops in which teachers can choose their courses and earn graduate credits. Based upon an annual needs assessment, approximately 20 topics are offered at any given time. The workshops are held at central locations throughout the region. The university pays for the cost of conducting the workshops, while teachers pay regular tuition or workshop fees (Condra, 1986).

School/university partnerships in 14 states have formed the **National Network for Educational Renewal**, an effort led by John Goodlad. The partnerships are tackling various aspects of school reform, many of which involve the professional development of teachers, such as new roles for teachers in schools and developing curricular responses for students at risk of failure (Olson, 1987).

During the summer of 1985, 55 Cleveland public school and college teachers improved their teaching skills in science and mathematics and increased their awareness of business and technical occupations through hands-on experiences coordinated by **Cleveland's Teacher Internship Program.** A junior high school math teacher, for example, earned a stipend as an intern with an aerospace and automotive conglomerate, while she learned to use a computer to perform financial and tax system functions (Gold, 1987).

The Lawrence (MA) School Industry Project experimented with a creative experiential approach to staff development, providing opportunities for teachers to try out new roles such as colearner in the classroom, student advisor, and industry-education liaison. This joint project trained high school students to use a basic statistical charting technique for improving quality and productivity in business and industry and developed a corps of teachers with the knowledge and skills necessary to integrate quality/productivity theory into classroom curricula. Teachers and high school students were first instructed together by the business trainers. Their co-training was followed by high school student placement at the business site, where they practiced and applied the techniques under the guidance of a business-mentor. Teachers made site visits and served as industry liaisons and student advisors throughout the training program (Murray, 1984).

The St. Louis Park (MN) Schools and Honeywell Industries established a partnership in which school and business personnel exchanged a variety of professional development resources. They formed a team to develop and conduct career development training sessions for industry personnel. Honeywell invited school administrators to participate in a

three-day management seminar and offered two seminars on creative problem solving designed specifically for school administrators, community education coordinators, staff specialists, and administrative secretaries. Also, they made available on an as-needed basis their Corporate Conference Center for off-site school meetings and seminars (Erickson & Bengston, 1984).

As these examples suggest, the range of professional development topics, directions, and specific activities that may be supported by partnerships is infinite. Partnerships are meeting many needs and are ideally suited to providing effective professional development opportunities for teachers. Teachers are gaining access to new professional perspectives, experiences in and with other institutions, and additional resources for professional development. Colleges and universities are gaining new clients, assistance in program modifications, and new clinical settings and teaching staff. Businesses have the opportunity to influence the quality and effectiveness of the institutions supplying workers, maintain community health, and gain access to educational resources for use in their own programs.

Underlying Assumptions

Quality education is a community responsibility.

Partnerships for professional development are based on the assumption that the quality and effectiveness of our educational system is the responsibility of the entire community, not just the schools. School administrators, teachers, and university professors are discovering an identity as members of a shared profession and are building a shared vision within an entire community about what constitutes educational excellence. Business and the private sector are recognizing the importance of public education in preparing young people to be good citizens, to be economically independent, and to live fulfilling lives. All are discovering that they have important goals in common and that many of the problems of young people must be addressed by all members of a community.

Partners are equal.

Partnerships, to be effective, must truly be a two-way exchange of resources and knowledge. Partners have equal but different roles to play. Their joint efforts are based on a mutual belief that each has something to share and each can make important contributions to the effort.

Partnerships assume that a primary goal is mutual satisfaction of self-interest for each partner. Partners are, to some degree, dissimilar. Each partner has an important need or interest that is met by the partnership. Yet, in successful partnerships, each partner is selfless enough to assure that other partners are able to satisfy their self-interests as well. By contrast, unsuccessful partnerships tend to be characterized by too great or too little similarity, little overlap of interests, and unwillingness to change behavior or give up ground. As noted in our opening quote, successful partnership is in large measure symbiotic, like marriage. It unites partners rather intimately in mutually beneficial relationships (Goodlad, 1986).

What They Look Like in Practice

Partnerships for professional development may serve almost any purpose and include any number of activities desired by the partners involved. Rather than attempt to describe the infinite variety of specific partnership projects, this section focuses on an interesting dimension in which partnerships appear to vary their scope and intensity with some illustrations of each.

In looking across a wide array of partnerships, it is possible to differentiate them into three clusters: those based on *support* for each partner; those based on *cooperation* between partners; and those based on *collaboration* (Zacchei & Mirman, 1986). There are two ways of viewing these different clusters. Just as Rome was not built in a day, neither do partnerships spring into full-blown collaborations overnight. Thus it happens that many partnerships develop from fairly minimal relationships between partners to much more robust ones. They pass through developmental stages of increasingly more involved and demanding degrees of commitment. From this viewpoint, the three clusterings—support, cooperation, collaboration--can characterize where a single partnership is in its development.

From another point of view, some partnerships never intend to be more than support between partners, and others work on cooperative activities, with no plan for extensive collaboration. There is no development from one kind of partnership to another. Whatever the point of view, the three kinds of partnerships appear to be quite distinct one from another, varying in what partners attempt to accomplish for themselves, their commitment of resources, involvement of personnel, and range of specific activities. Each kind varies in what [illegible] are set, which activities are planned, who does what, as well as the [illegible]cesses of

munication, decision making and implementation. In addition, the kinds of professional development opportunities they offer teachers vary.

When a partnership is based on *support,* activities often involve short-term, single events. The basic objective is to establish better ties, to open communications, and to create some awareness of each other. Partners often plan activities that have a low level of risk, commitment, and coordination requirements. Examples of such partnerships include businesses allowing school administrators to attend their management training sessions; universities granting graduate credit for district-run inservices; and businesses assisting a school to conduct an annual communitywide event.

While many relationships never intend to go beyond providing mutual support, often it represents a natural starting place for more intensive partnerships. A pool of "supportive contacts" develops, from which candidates for further involvement are identified. A dialogue is begun that can result in discovery of shared problems or goals important to both partners. In time, a mutual vision and working style may be established. Successfully executing small-scale activities often generates enthusiasm, increases momentum, and solidifies commitments, all leading to more extensive relationships.

Partnerships based on *cooperation* are characterized by greater degrees of involvement, commitment, and mutuality. Partners focus on accomplishing tasks with significant input from all. It is not unusual for partners in these kinds of relationships to be somewhat unequal. For example, a school may find itself on the receiving end of some community relations, marketing, or experimental project of a business or college. Cooperation typically involves a small core of people serving as a management structure for identifying areas of mutual interest and planning activities. Partners contribute more staff time than in support relationships, thus requiring greater approval and commitment from upper management. While there are mutual efforts and shared understanding of need, activities are still relatively short-term in scope, with moderate and unequal levels of resource commitment. The earlier descriptions of the Cleveland and Lawrence projects may be examples of this kind of partnership.

Collaborative partnerships are symbiotic relationships in which partners are not simply representatives from distinct organizations. They operate as equals, creating a group or working unit that functions across organizational boundaries. While partners retain their self-interest, they are [illegible] to a consensual vision and have agreed upon long-term

program activities, policies, and procedures. A full-fledged collaborative partnership is an established entity with a legitimate mission, a solid structure, and a definable program. Members and activities may change, but the partnership structure and direction remains. The partnership is a stable component of the professional development program within the school or district. Objectives and activities allow full participation and reciprocation of each partner. Over time, partners may broaden the scope of their activities, expanding programs and involving other organizations. The Vermont project and many of the partnerships in the National Network for Educational Renewal are examples of such ongoing commitment and collaboration. (For a more detailed description of this partnership model, see Zacchei and Mirman, 1986.)

Conditions Necessary for Success

Realistic Expectations. Partners need to have realistic expectations about what kind of relationship they want to have, how long it will take to develop, and what is required to be successful. They need to recognize that it is natural for partnerships to evolve from supportive but short-term and episodic interactions to longer-term programs requiring significant commitments. Initially, short-term activities rather than long-range goals propel the partnership. Larger, superordinate goals for collaboration become clearer after people have worked together a while. Partners must develop a history of shared experiences that, over time, build the trust and respect necessary for the high levels of involvement and commitment required by full collaboration.

Involvement. Partners must feel an equal stake in the success of the joint venture, and they must be invested in quality staff development. Levels of participation must be at a depth that all participants feel an ownership of the collaborative program. There must be a loss of territoriality and a mutual investment in the benefits that the collaborative program represents.

Successful collaborative partnerships need to identify and structure opportunities for joint exploration and planning. Each person's role and expectations should be clarified, especially those that require significant investment of time and energy. Partners must assume responsibility for follow-up steps to assure that programs become more than short-term, serving small groups of students or being supported by temporary funding. To stay interested and committed, partners must see significant results, some important benefits of being involved. When they do see results, they take credit as a team and publicize the process and products of their joint efforts.

Commitment. A high level of commitment from each partner is necessary to enable a partnership to be truly collaborative. Commitment involves significant allotments of time and energy. People often underestimate the amount of energy it takes to work with other people, especially in activities as complex as professional development. Thus, there must be administrative support for the collaborators. If the school and its teachers are to be more than the passive receivers of someone else's professional development program, then school personnel must commit significant time and energy to planning, delivering, and following up on the joint training activities.

Deep commitment to a collaborative venture grows from the trust that develops over time among partners. Trust leads to a willingness to risk the commitment of significant resources and energy. Trust develops when collaborative programs operate within the spirit of collaboration, rather than just within the mechanical arrangements of a plan and a program.

Leadership. Partnerships do not form, nor do they thrive, without strong, visionary leadership. Because partnerships often feel above and beyond the call of duty to participants who already have a full worklife, the motivating force of a leader (or leaders) is vital. Beyond motivation, though, good leadership keeps activities moving, coordinating people, timelines, and tasks so that everyone knows what is happening and benefits are visible.

Benefits

The benefits of partnerships are infinite, depending on the specific efforts that are undertaken. No matter what the goals, partnerships with businesses and institutions of higher education can build local capacity for school improvement. Partnerships can provide the opportunity to pool resources and can bring in additional resources for comprehensive and relevant staff development. Partnerships can encourage teachers to try on new perspectives, protecting them from becoming too insular and from depending solely on other educators for new techniques and training. Partnerships for staff development can keep teachers in touch with a broader knowledge base and the realities of our society. All parties are enriched by the opportunity to become more familiar with the culture and ways of doing things in different organizations.

Commentary

The current wave of reform and heightened communitywide interest in the quality of education provides us with a friendly climate for establishing partnerships for staff development. Now is an ideal time to explore and develop them. Yet there are some important considerations that need thought before and during the establishment of a partnership and some pitfalls to avoid.

As noted above, any kind of collaboration takes time and attention, far more than anyone expects at the inception. This includes duration (i.e., the timeline will be longer), as well as time-on-task (i.e., each activity, such as a planning session, will take longer). This is due to a number of things: it takes time for trust to build; to learn to speak a common language; to understand the world view of people whose daily lives, including demands and activities, are far different from one's own. Being realistic about time demands is critical to establishing a workable partnership. It probably is a useful rule of thumb to double the time one would expect the planning and execution of activities to take, rather than underestimate and regret it later.

Another consideration is in choosing what to do in a partnership. Clearly, it is often easier and more appropriate to do things unilaterally than in concert with others. Thus, it is important to identify what activities can best be accomplished through partnering, rather than jumping at the first good idea. For example, collaborating with a university to provide graduate courses to teachers may not be a good idea if teachers don't need graduate credits and there are excellent in-district trainers available. Likewise, placing a teacher intern with a local industry just because the offer was made and the placement seemed remotely connected to the teacher's specialty may not be as good a use of teacher time as some other kind of in-district opportunity. It is better to look for ways to solve persistent problems or extend current directions through partnerships than jump at the first, often easy, opportunity to collaborate.

Finally, although it seems selfish, each partner needs to be clear that they are getting something out of a partnership. Like the marriage Goodlad talked about in our beginning quote, a relationship where one party just gives and doesn't receive can get old quickly, even if the initial giving was highly rewarding. Because they are hard work to keep alive and well, partnerships have to be in the self-interest of both parties, and that self-interest and its achievement need to be reflected on periodically to ensure continued commitment.

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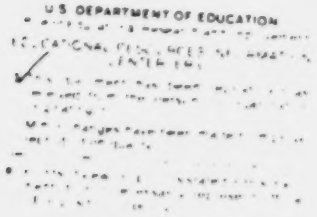

School Partnerships in Education: A Rural Consortium

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INTRODUCTION

The development of partnership activities between the higher education and public school community has received increasing interest and emphasis over the past five years. This interdependence between universities and their colleagues in the public school sector has received recognition as a valuable activity that would lead to the enhancement of educational efforts in both sectors. From our perspective, developing partnerships in a rural area has been profitable in developing new programs, enhancing faculty skills, and increasing community involvement. In this symposium, we will provide an overview of the planning process that must take place in establishing successful partnerships in a rural area.

When launching a partnership, all concerned must be able to convince a wide sector of the community that such programs are both cost effective and will lead to more successful educational programming. By providing such a rationale early, the type of support needed from the public and business community will be easier to secure.

As part of developing a partnership in a rural area, it is important that regional demographics be fully reviewed and understood by all participating groups. In the presentation an overview of the region, which will focus on demographics and unique regional characteristics, will be provided. The forming of partnerships in the rural area must take into account isolation, transportation issues, and distance between schools and

the university. In particular, this two-county area encompasses eleven school districts, two area vocational technical schools and one major university providing a variety of advanced programs for candidates pursuing post-secondary study.

In response to President Reagan's Proclamation of 1983 as the National Year of Partnerships in Education, the President of Indiana University of Pennsylvania, the Dean of the College of Education, the Executive Director of the Armstrong and Indiana Counties' Intermediate Unit #28 (ARIN), and the eleven superintendents of the school districts in Armstrong/Indiana counties met to discuss ways to develop and improve linkages with higher education, basic education, and the community. A Steering Committee (key individuals, decison-makers) was formed in October 1983 and charged with the identification of ways and means of pooling resources to improve the educational process. To date the Steering Committee has initiated over forty projects involving IUP, the Intermediate Unit, and the eleven school districts. The round-table discussion will present the results of this partnership from an administrative, funding, and programmatic view.

DEVELOPING PARTNERSHIPS

As cited earlier, planned collaboration among higher education, basic education, and the community challenges all parties to share the benefits of partnerships. Enlisting the active involvement of the community is a rewarding and effective way of gaining understanding and support for elementary and secondary education. Also, working with schools provides

higher education with practical input for course and curriculum development. It permits faculty to interact with their colleagues in the public sector for the improvement of teaching.

It is important in developing partnerships that a Steering Committee work diligently to involve educators from both higher education and basic education in planning, organizing and delivering a program for the improvement of schooling in the rural area. Throughout the past three years, the Steering Committee has initiated over forty projects involving IUP departments, the Intermediate Unit, and the eleven school districts. Students at the primary, secondary, and college levels, adult learners, teachers, school administrators, and the business community have been drawn into the partnership activities. The Committee has evaluated and revised curricula, and developed new programs. Teachers and administrators have received advanced trainrng in clinical supervision, and the business community has actively supported the educational programs for students.

It is not enough to have cogent reasons for schools and businesses to work together in developing partnerships and programs for the improvement of schooling. Maintaining the initiative and drive needed for continuation calls for careful planning and marshalling of resources to support all efforts. A partnership venture requires strong committment and leadership from several sectors if it is to succeed. In particular, the School Superintendent, the President of the University, and the Dean of the College must be highly visible in providing support to the efforts of those who

volunteer their work. It is critical to address questions of need for partnerships and preparing in advance for projects and the activities that will take place. As well-documented by Susan Otterbourg (1986), it will be necessary to assess needs and resources, secure committments, form committees, and determine possible solutions as the work begins. Well-developed partnerships will include the following:

Advisory Committee

Partnership Staff

Record-keeping Procedures

Program Activities

Evaluation and Reporting Procedures

The business community in particular will be be interested in how their funds are used and the results in relation to impact on the number of children and adults served by the partnership.

In summary, the historical background of prior university efforts in participating in partnerships and their success in fostering work relations with public school staff and administrators is critical. Professional exchanges over the past three years have been most rewarding for participants in these partnership efforts and the committment for continued development continues.

ADMINISTRATIVE ISSUES FOR MANAGING PARTNERSHIPS

We recognize that good will and a positive attitude toward forming partnerships are responsible for success, but this will not necessarily guarantee achievement. Each partner will have to address political, economic and administrative factors that exist within the local community. The advisory committee must translate the ideals and vision that arise in partnerships into concrete activities. Each administrative unit within the partnerships must manage the people involved, acquire resources, deal with organizational policies, and know how to change policies that hinder innovative collaboration. The administrative team in each unit must work diligently to secure internal committment and a positive view toward the partnership.

It is often difficult for administrators working in public schools to balance the needs and pressures of their own unique environment with the pressures that occur in the university sector. Administrators from each segment must be careful to balance their needs with the competing needs of the other institution in developing the partnership. Frank and open communication of specific concerns will lead to well-designed projects that meet the needs of both parties. At a minimum, the Advisory Committee should meet at least once every six weeks for sustaining the momentum needed for bringing partnership activities to a successful conclusion. One cannot simply believe in a partnership as a cause, but must be willing to make committments and convince others within their organization that it is vital

for the institutions to work together. It requires a rare combination of vision, fortitude, and patience to lead a partnership to a successful conclusion. Many of the administrative issues will focus on staffing, funding, securing community support, balancing school policies with release time, and other administrative issues. The administrative team must learn how to balance existing personnel needs and existing policy structures effectively and appropriately to bring the partnership to a successful conclusion. In the model developed within our two-county area we have managed to bridge the gap between rural distance and the resource base of the university to enrich the lives of many students in our partnership.

RESULTS

As mentioned earlier, we have initiated over forty different partnership activities during the past three years and have begun to plan an academic alliance for the fall of 1987 with the Geography Department at IUP and the eleven participating public schools. A sampling of several of the projects are as follows, and more complete details are available in the report which will be distributed at the conference. Several of the major projects are as follows:

1. ARIN-IUP Mentorship Project where IUP faculty in mathematics, biology, physics, chemistry and computer programming act as mentors for high ability tenth, eleventh and twelfth grade students.

2. The IUP University School provided opportunity to mainstream children enrolled in ARIN Intermediate Unit's Special Education Programs. Operated by IUP, the faculty consists of both public school certified teachers and University professors and has access to IUP's College of Education and Departments of Special Education and Speech and Language.

3. IUP-Indiana County Schools English Co-Teaching Project is an inservice training program for English teachers which provided opportunity for teachers to increase their knowledge of current teaching methodologies. Teachers work with IUP faculty on a weekly basis.

4. TEAMS, Technology Enhanced Activities in Mathematics and Science provides inservice training to help teachers upgrade their teaching programs, illustrating changes in modern science, mathematics and technology. This program has received continued funding from the National Science Foundation and by an ECIA Chapter II grant.

5. The Principal's Assessment Center, a part of IUP's College of Education, is designed to objectively evaluate potential principal candidates and aid school districts in making hiring decisions. It is one of a network of 27 centers across the country developed through the efforts of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

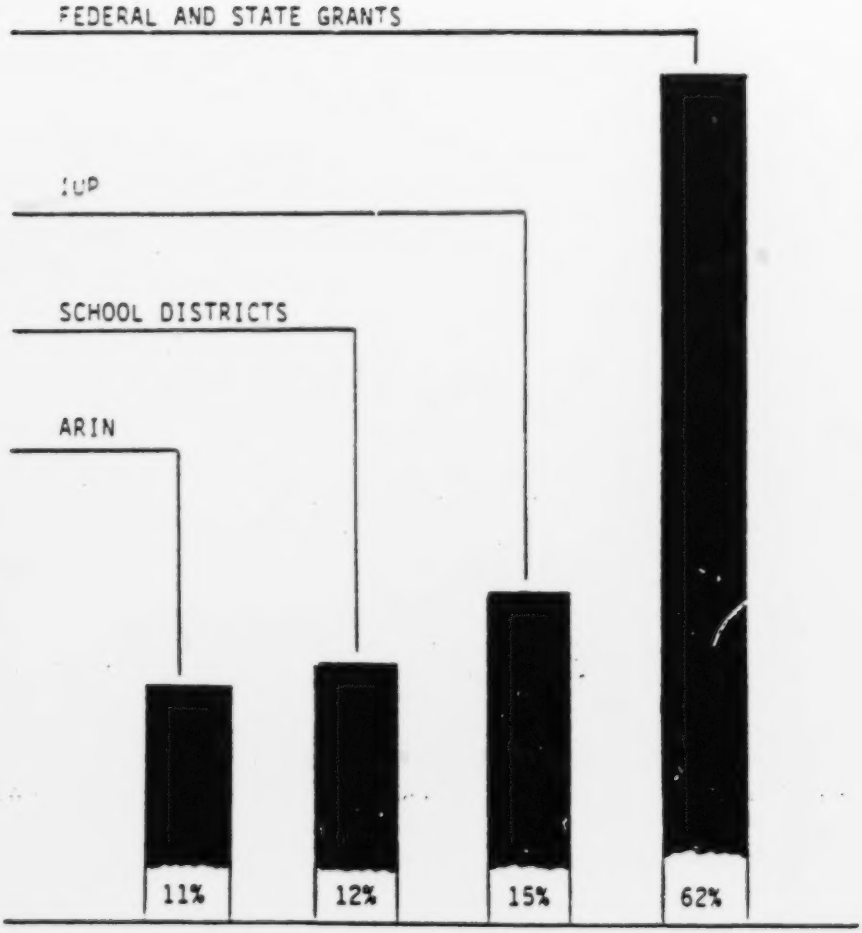

CHART 1 Financial Contributions To The Partnership

Also, the financial support for these efforts has resulted in over $40,000 being generated from four major sources (see chart 1).

SUMMARY

The focus of this partnership was the development of realistic ventures that would involve public school professionals in collaborative planning with university and community representatives. The practical implications of such a partnership have brought recognition and reward to all those involved. They have also impacted funding, curriculum, administrative decision making and planning in the institutions that have participated to date. While we live and work in a rural area, we feel that the gap has been bridged in bringing the public school, community and university much closer together. We are optimistic as we face the future and begin to initiate new endeavors to keep the partnership thriving.

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A COLLABORATIVE STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

Larry Rainey

Introduction

An impending shortage of qualified teachers is currently facing much of the United States, particularly in such disciplines as science and mathematics, (Rotberg, 1984; Sigda, 1983). Guthrie and Zusman (1982) found that forty-three states have reported teacher shortages in mathematics, and forty-two in physics.

The outlook for the immediate future remains bleak. Not only are insufficient numbers of teachers being trained to fill these vacancies, but mathematics and science teachers are "being drawn to high-technology industries like iron filings to an electromagnet" (Guthrie & Zusman, 1982).

Rural areas are particularly impacted; they are forced to hire inexperienced teachers and to make extensive use of emergency certificates. Due to a variety of factors such as isolation, sparsity, poverty and inadequate facilities, rural systems experience exceptionally high attrition rates among staff, often approaching 50% per year. Such high rates cause numerous continuity problems with the educational program, as well as problems relating to professional staff development (Helge, 1984).

Given this shortage of qualified staff, many systems rely heavily on in-service training to upgrade the skills of current staff members and to aid others in making the transition into mathematics and science disciplines. Often, rural teachers must teach in four to five subject areas and are rarely, if ever, certified in all of them. Traugh (1984) found that approximately one-third of the teachers in rural systems teach in at least three different areas.

The in-service programs found in most school systems are typically inadequate in the face of such a challenge. Often, they are "hastily prepared, ineptly presented, and educationally impractical with information unrelated to the problems in a school" (Sportsman, 1981, p. 307). Goodlad (1984), in a ten-year study of American schools, found staff development programs to be fragmented, trendy and without well-conceived priorities. In another national study involving science educators at graduate institutions, Gallagher and Yager (1981, p. 513) found a major concern of faculty members to be "inappropriate avenues for continuing education of teachers." Rural systems suffer the same in-service maladies as those experienced by the larger population of all school systems, only to a greater degree. Traugh (1984, p. 12) found rural in-service experiences to be "irregular, unplanned, limited, not memorable...quality difficult to come by."

Faced with the aforementioned staffing shortages and inadequacies in science, and cognizant of the mounting pressures on school systems to strive for excellence, the Hale County, Alabama, school system decided to work collaboratively with the University of Alabama to develop an in-service program to address their needs.

Implementation

After several planning sessions, representatives of the Hale County school system and the University of Alabama agreed to a long-range, collaborative relationship targeted at meeting the identified needs of the Hale County system. Major components of the project included

- The lab facilities will be upgraded and made functional at all schools;
- Appropriate instructional materials, supplies, and equipment will be purchased for all science laboratories;
- The University of Alabama will conduct month-long professional development activities for all secondary science teachers and one staff person in Life Science, Physical Science and Biology;
- Provision for follow-up activities, including classroom visits by university personnel and local administrative staff.

Evaluation

A critical phase of the project was evaluation. In order to accurately monitor progress toward attainment of the project's objectives a battery of assessment instruments and procedures was assembled. The following three areas were assessed:

1. *Affective Domain.* This area was assessed using a modified form of the "Semantic Differential Instrument for Science Teaching" by Sunal (1975);
2. *Cognitive Domain.* This dimension was evaluated using subject matter tests produced by Scott, Foresman and Company (1980) and distributed by American Testronics, Coralville, Iowa;
3. *Teaching Competencies.* Methodological considerations of classroom performance were assessed using a modified form of "Assessing the Teaching Competence of Science Teachers" by Okey & Capie (1979).

Feedback from students, teachers and administrators has been very favorable, even effusive at times. Teachers report increased interest and participation, particularly in the laboratory and field activities. One building principal remarked, "There has been a revolution in our science program." A number of the teachers have requested that the collaborative relationship with the University continue indefinitely and that new subjects be incorporated in the future. The central administration of the Hale County system is exploring, in cooperation with the university, ways to expand the relationship into other grade levels and disciplines.

Statistically significant gains were achieved in the science teachers' mastery of content, teaching methodology, and attitudes toward themselves as science teachers.

Recommendations

As with any significant effort, there are benefits as well as costs to collaboration between universities and secondary schools. Benefits range from increased respect for each other, the improvement of both college and high school courses, and high quality in-service, to practical and basic research. Costs include heavy investments of time and resources and results may lack generalizability to other populations.

The following factors seem to be central to the success of such an effort:

1. Participants at both the college and high school levels must recognize common needs and focus on concrete, immediate problems;
2. There must be meaningful rewards for the participants;
3. Both parties must have an "investment" (i.e., time, money, facilities) in the project;
4. Effective communication between all parties, including regular visits to the schools by the university facilitator, is extremely important;
5. Administrative support and, better yet, involvement, greatly enhances the chances for a successful relationship;
6. The commitment must be an ongoing, long-term one.

As a result of this program, a number of new avenues for inquiry were illuminated. In future efforts, the following areas are suggested for consideration:

- A collaborative program should be applied to different teacher populations (e.g., large, urban systems; different disciplines; different grade levels, etc.) to see if the same or similar results occur;
- The effects on students should be assessed; are there, corresponding increases in student performance and attitudes?
- Reassessment should occur at appropriate intervals to see if the gains are long term.

Larry P. Rainey is the Project Director of the BioPrep Program at the University of Alabama.

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Teacher Renewal Through A Consortium Approach

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By: Marilyn Miller

Staff development efforts in Pennsylvania have been given a boost through a pool of funds provided by the Pennsylvania Department of Education. These monies, called School Improvement Funds, have been allocated to districts based on student population. A large district might receive several thousand dollars; small districts might receive less than $500.00. A sensible cost-effective approach, especially for small districts. involves combining funds to create a quality staff development program. The Teacher Renewal Institute is a staff development program based on a consortium approach, provided by combining this funding from twelve districts.

The idea of a Teacher Renewal Institute is hardly a modern one. There are reports from the 1840's which describe teacher institutes;[1] this 1985-86 version was created by a committee of teachers and administrators representing districts within the service area of the Carbon Lehigh Intermediate Unit in Schnecksville, Pennsylvania.

The committee decided that there was a strong need to develop a program that recognized teachers by inviting them to share their teaching skills and knowledge. The Institute was created to encourage collaboration between teaching and administrative staffs and among concerned individuals across district lines.

Teachers were surveyed in the spring of 1985 to determine areas of interest; the two topics of most concern of teachers were Classroom Management/Discipline and Motivation. Each participating district was invited to send two teams to participate in sessions on these topics. The sessions were conducted by local teachers and administrators who had expertise in the topics. Each team was comprised of an administrator and two teachers from the same building. Teams developed action plans to share what they had learned with the faculty in their home buildings.

The teams participated in an introductory session conducted in the Summer of 1985. The

session covered the area of teaching effectiveness, to highlight the fact that participants are involved as instructional leaders. The concept of team planning for action plans was introduced in preparation for work in the Fall.

Participants attended two days of sessions in October on the topics of their choice. They developed action plans which they implemented in their schools in November. All action plans included goals, objectives, activities to accomplish the objectives, target audience, resources needed, budget recommendations, time line, and evaluation. Figure 1 displays the components of the Teacher Renewal Institute program.

The plans varied by building, as there were representatives from a variety of different districts. Sample action plans included projects to reduce discipline problems and accidents in the cafeteria and on the playground; develop homework policies; provide teachers with classroom management techniques that instill student responsibility; motivate a selected group of tenth grade underachievers; increase the use of sound motivational techniques by classroom teachers; help staff become familiar with the Effective Teaching Strategy Model defined by Madeline Hunter.

The teams came together in January to share what they had done and make revisions to their plans. An outside consultant came in to give them ideas about working effectively with their peers. In addition to ideas from the consultant, they were also able to gain ideas from each other, hearing what worked successfully and what led to problems in other plans.

The whole process is now being evaluated to make improvements for the 1986-87 school year. Sixty-three participants completed evaluation forms. In answer to the question, "Would you recommend the continuation of the Teacher Renewal Institute?," fifty-nine said "yes," three said "wait and see," and one said "no." Even more revealing questions asked, "What happened in your district that would not have happened without the Teacher Renewal Institute? Did the Institute make a difference?" The answers were most interesting, "An increased awareness into several components of classroom management and discipline - an opportunity to share these with the entire staff as well as a small group who worked more intensively. . . . The Topics renewed teachers in their instructional skills. Teachers completed the sessions feeling better about themselves as teachers, having new ideas to incorporate in their classrooms . . . . Th

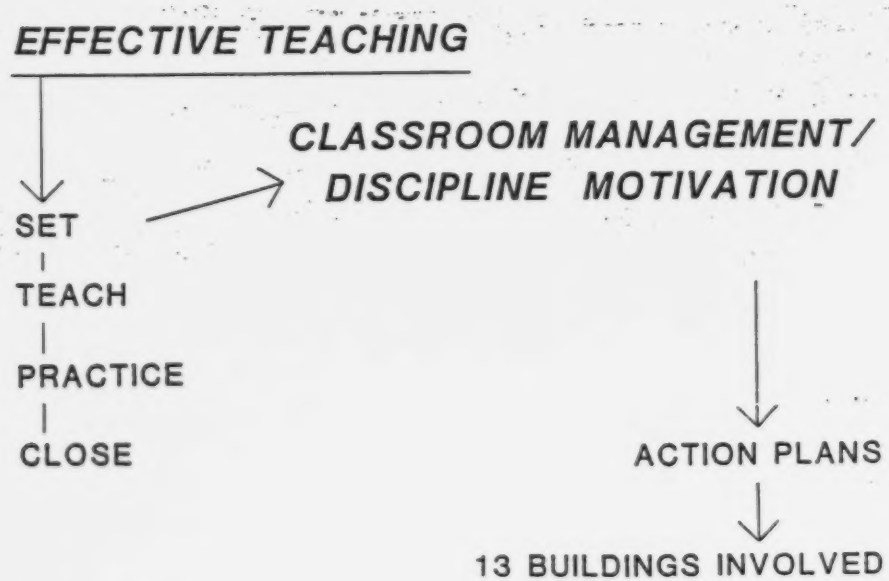

Figure I: Components of Teacher Renewal Institute Program

Institute provided time for teachers to share, communicate, and improve the program in our building. It reinforced the group decision-making process . . . . A unit of teachers developed who cared enough to want to work in the area of motivation . . . . I am more motivated and interested. I have motivated others more than I would have in a normal school year . . . . The goals of the district were reinforced . . . . The initiative from the Intermediate Unit has nurtured some goals that have been germinating in our district for some time."

Teachers and administrators appear to be responding positively to working collaboratively on learning new content and sharing what they've learned with the faculty in their buildings. They seem to be saying that in addition to increasing their own knowledge, they have had a chance to reinforce goals from their own districts.

The experience of the Teacher Renewal Institute would seem to indicate that districts can work cooperatively to develop a quality staff development program. Educators respond favorably to a focus on professional growth and effective teaching; when they are treated as professionals, they will respond as professionals. Figure 2 is an example of one of the forms of recognition given to program participants. The institute does not replace individually-run district staff development programs, but rather serves to enhance provisions which are offered at the district level. By developing action plans, a number of people can be involved in the program, not just the participants who attend the sessions.

Since the evaluation data are still being analyzed, the 1986-87 program has not been finalized. It is possible that new topics could be presented, depending on the needs of the participants. Some districts have requested some help with assistance at the district level from presenters, and this is being investigated. Flexibility is a critical component of a program that is designed for a variety of districts.

In summary, the Teacher Renewal Institute model is composed of elements which research indicates are essential to effective staff development programs. These are:

- local funding and development
- based on needs assessment
- building-based teams, with 80 participants/year
- action plans which are implemented at the building level
- local presenters, teachers and administrators
- strong evaluation component.

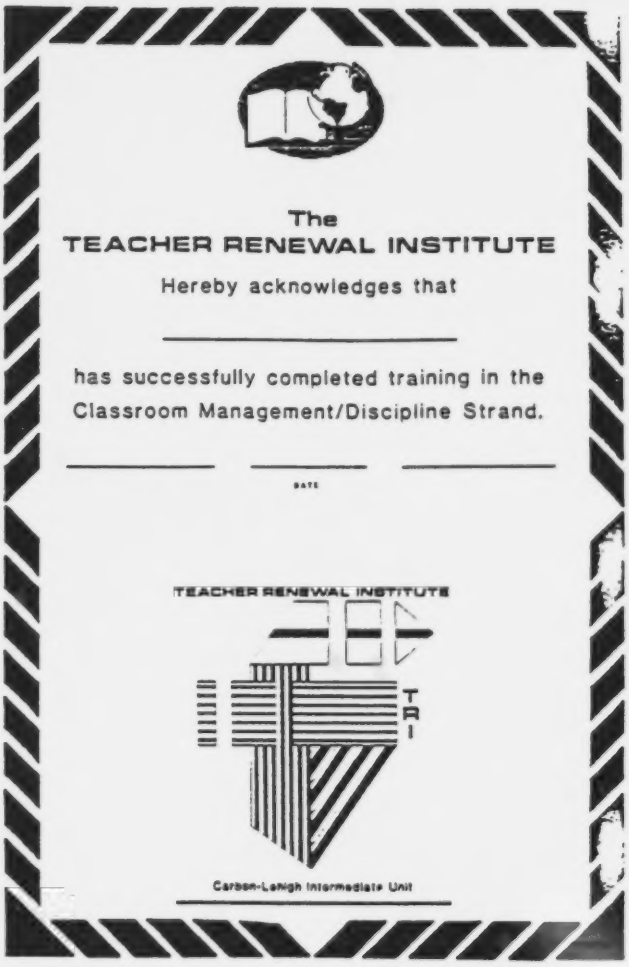

Figure II: Recognition Form

The Institute provides a model for other districts who wish to work collaboratively in developing a staff development program which is of high quality, yet cost-effective for all districts involved.

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Cross-Organizational Collaboration: A Study of Staff Development and School Improvement Efforts in Oregon

Networks, consortia, and coalitions among school districts are cost-effective means to provide staff development, improve instruction, and develop curriculum. They also promote the exchange of ideas and resources.

VIDA S. TAYLOR
KIM THOMPSON
RICHARD A. SCHMUCK

Cooperative learning, peer tutoring, collegial support groups, and organization development, among other innovations, are being implemented with enthusiasm in many American school districts today. Some districts, particularly the smaller ones, find such practices difficult to implement due to resource constraints. Collaboration with other school districts and organizations can help put these innovations within reach of all schools.

School districts in the State of Oregon are involved in collaborative efforts with institutions of higher education and educational service districts to accomplish a number of important school improvement goals. This article will summarize results of two recent studies in Oregon that focused on cross-organizational collaboration for school improvement. The first study was a state-wide survey that identified the types of collaborative organizations and provided a picture of the extent, purposes, and benefits of collaboration (Taylor, 1986). The second was an examination of the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of these collaborative efforts in improving schools (Thompson, 1988). The conclusions of these studies are reviewed to provide guidelines for organizations and individuals working for school improvement.

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Cross-Organizational Collaboration in Oregon

Our two studies in Oregon uncovered information on cross-organizational collaboration through the use of questionnaires, interviews, document analysis, and observations of collaborative organizations. In the first study, a questionnaire was sent to all school superintendents in the state to obtain basic demographic and descriptive data about their district's participation in collaboration for the purposes of school improvement and/or staff development (Taylor, 1986). Responses to the questionnaire in this study indicated that collaborative organizations exist within a reasonable distance of almost every school district in Oregon, although only about two-thirds of districts participated.

A group of districts collaboratively working together in some form was considered a cluster. While the 41 clusters that were identified cover the state, the majority reside within the highly populated cor-

ridor of the Willamette Valley between Portland and Eugene. Many clusters are comprised of two or three school districts, but a substantial number have as many as 12 or more members. Most clusters are made up of districts within a 50-mile radius of one another and include a college or university or an Educational Service District as a facilitating agency.

In the second study, five clusters identified in the first study as the most successful collaborations were examined more closely by interviewing key individuals, analyzing documents, and observing meetings (Thompson, 1988). We were particularly interested in tracking the benefits and the problems of organizational collaboration. Details about the specific methods employed can be found in Taylor (1986) and Thompson (1988). The information that follows is synthesized from both studies.

Types of Collaborations

The questionnaire results revealed three types of collaborative organizations, which we have classified as *networks*, *consortia*, and *coalitions*. These organizations differ from each other in terms of formality of structure and in the membership and purposes of the organization.

Networks. About a third of responding districts belong to networks, which we define as loosely coordinated clusters of schools formed for the purpose of sharing information and providing interorganizational support. Networks are informal: they do not have bylaws, constitutions, administrative personnel, or a funding source outside of that provided by the members. Through the sharing of resources, networks help schools by facilitating information exchange and promoting cooperative endeavors. Some typical purposes of networks are sharing consultants, coordinating staff development efforts, solving problems, and assisting in instructional improvement.

Consortia. Another third of responding districts belong to what we call consortia, which we define as formal clusters of educational organizations that include one or more institutions of higher education and have a constitution, bylaws, an outside funding source, and a formal leader. With our terminology, Goodlad's "Network of Innovative Schools" would be labeled a consortium because it was supported by a grant, had a formal structure, and was facilitated by personnel at UCLA. In Oregon, all of the state universities and colleges and a handful of private and community colleges participate in consortia.

Consortia represent efforts to reach out to institutions different from one's own and to exchange help in both directions. Districts offer realistic sites for experimentation and change, while universities and colleges offer consultation and research knowledge. Some typical purposes of consortia are to build broad-based support for grant applications, curriculum development, program evaluation, and teacher education.

Consortia represent efforts to reach out to institutions different from one's own and to exchange help in both directions. Districts offer realistic sites for experimentation and change; while universities and colleges offer consultations and research knowledge.

Coalitions. Another third of participating districts belong to coalitions, which we define as organizations that share financial resources and expertise. Education service districts (ESDs) typically join with districts to form coalitions. The ESDs' involvement is particularly relevant in areas of Oregon far from colleges and universities where access to consultation and knowledge about research is hindered by distance.

The ESDs often take the role of organizer and catalyst for the coalition, helping provide low-cost consultation and evaluation services to the schools. Typical purposes are curriculum coordination, access to support and expertise beyond the means of small districts, and assistance in meeting state standards.

Examples of Collaborations

Each of the three types of collaborative organizations that we studied is illustrated below with a description of their purposes and how they function.

Network. The Central Oregon Network began informally through the initiative of a few school administrators in the small, rural school districts of Crook, Deschutes, and Jefferson counties. Three superintendents and two curriculum directors would gather together once a month for lunch to discuss their staff development efforts. The sharing of information was so helpful to the districts involved that this process gradually became more formalized through the initiative of a consultant within the Deschutes County ESD. Other activities were undertaken collectively, such as coordinating compliance with state standards and providing staff development for teachers in the local area.

This organization is called a network because the participants prefer to keep an unstructured relationship with no by-laws, no official administrator, and no funds. This type of organization seems to be particularly long-lasting because its informal nature allows the organization to change as the needs of the member districts change and because lack of funds does not interfere with its operation.

School improvement activities are undertaken by the network members in a cooperative manner. An example is the Artists in the Schools Program which provides arts education in all districts in the network. Program coordination is handled by the Central Oregon Arts Commission, a creation of the cooperative efforts of the curriculum directors in the network.

The network also provides information to member districts about school improvement projects in the area. Organizations

like the Central Oregon Network provide vital help to small school districts in several other regions of the state at this time. They are especially important in regions where there is no college or university nearby to provide information and assistance.

Consortium. The Southern Oregon Research and Development (SORD), one of the oldest consortia in Oregon, has been in existence for over 25 years. It grew out of the initial collaboration of the Jackson County Able and Gifted Study Committee (established in 1961 by five school districts), the Jackson ESD, and Southern Oregon State College.

Most of the early efforts of SORD focused on stimulating improvement in curriculum and instruction of gifted students. Having expanded both in size and scope, SORD is now directed by four subcommittees, each with membership from school districts in Jackson and Josephine counties, Southern Oregon State College, Rogue Community College, and Sacred Heart School.

Each subcommittee, composed of teachers and administrators, has its own budget and sponsors its own activities. These subcommittees include: (a) a Research Committee, sponsoring research in timely topics as suggested by educators in the consortium (e.g., test taking skills, computers in schools, and the structure of intellect for curriculum development); (b) a Professional Development Committee, sponsoring seminars and workshops to meet local school needs (e.g., individualizing instruction, classroom management strategies, and teaching science); (c) a Student Enrichment Committee, sponsoring activities for highly motivated and gifted students, a throwback to the original purpose of SORD (e.g., Junior and Senior Brain Bowls, Project Prometheus, and the Southern Oregon Science and Humanities Symposium); and (d) Project Reviews, providing funds for incentive grants to schools for innovative projects (e.g., Japan Discovery Boxes, Increasing Indian Culture, and Community-Based Enrichment Programs).

Coalition. Practical Research Ideas for Developing Education, known as PRIDE, was developed after two past chairmen of SORD took superintendencies in Coos County during the late 1970s and brought with them the dream of a new R & D organization, which came to fruition in 1984 with the receipt of a planning grant from the State Department of Education.

From the planning endeavor, the Coos Superintendents' Association accepted PRIDE as an ESD Resolution Service. PRIDE, as well as all school programs offered through the ESD, must be approved by the ESD Resolution Service on an annual basis. PRIDE has been approved for the last 5 years. It is funded by the ESD tax base, thus forming a solidly-funded coalition for school improvement. Although PRIDE includes representatives from the University of Oregon and Southwestern Oregon Community College, it tends to be run by the teachers, school administrators, and ESD consultants of the region.

School administrators can be isolated and lonely, and collegial relationships with those in similar positions in other districts can be helpful in increasing job satisfaction and effectiveness. Teachers enjoy these same benefits and gain new perspectives and skills from the process of working with others on cooperative projects.

Like SORD, PRIDE is organized into four subcommittees: Professional Development, Student Enrichment, Projects Review, and Research. Each subcommittee has its own budget, which it decides how to spend. The Professional Development Committee plans seminars and workshops which help meet district inservice needs (e.g., stress reduction workshops, conducting classroom writing groups, and dealing with substance abuse problems). The Student Enrichment Committee plans and supports activities for students in Coos County (e.g., Knowledge Bowl for secondary students, Robotics and Dinosaurs for elementary students, and a leadership workshop for student body officers). The Project Review Committee provides funds for incentive grants to teachers and schools for innovative projects (e.g., an individualized French program, the Interdisciplinary Approach to Career Education, and a district Art Fair). Finally, the Research Committee sponsors research projects on major educational issues in the region (e.g., developing a policy for employee misconduct, assessing needs of seriously emotionally disturbed students, and assessing the staff development needs of teachers). PRIDE has deftly built a coalition which capitalizes on the experience of the SORD consortium.

Purposes, Benefits, and Problems in Collaboration

Our studies were designed to find out what the purposes of these collaborative organizations are, what benefits they realize through their collective efforts, and what problems they encounter in the process. We examine each of these areas separately and then consider the assistance needed to actually have the collaboration occur.

Purposes

While networks, consortia, and coalitions satisfy a myriad of specific needs, staff development and instructional improvement tend to be the primary purposes of these collaboratives. Through collaboration it is possible to share expert assistance for facilitating school improvement efforts, training staff, and designing staff development programs to be within reach of all member districts.

We discovered that collaboratives were also established for developing curriculum, sharing information, locating funding for common programs, and evaluating programs. Each of these areas will be examined briefly.

Curriculum development is one of the purposes of the Southern Oregon Research

and Development (SORD) group. Teachers serve on committees with administrators to collaboratively develop curriculum for the districts within the consortium. This shared expertise produces a satisfying experience for those involved and a product that is comprehensive and responsive to local needs. The process is enhanced by the involvement of teachers who bring commitment and knowledge on the classroom level with administrators who will eventually facilitate adoption of the curriculum.

Sharing of information across district lines is especially important to those in decision-making positions. For example, administrators in the Central Oregon Network coordinate school schedules, curriculum adoptions, and negotiations among districts in the three counties. They also work together to find funding sources for such programs as Talented and Gifted; Students at Risk; and Dropout, retention, and retrieval. Evaluation of these and other programs often takes place on a cooperative basis with assistance from the Educational Service District in the area. These activities can be very expensive and time consuming if tackled individually, but when three or four districts work together and share resources, much more can be accomplished with the same amount of effort.

Benefits

Through our questionnaire (Taylor, 1986), we asked respondents what additional benefits were realized through their participation. The benefit most frequently mentioned was increased effectiveness of staff development. When participants from several districts get together for staff development projects, there is a cross-fertilization of ideas.

Reduced cost of staff development is another benefit realized through the sharing of resources whenever possible. Sometimes university or ESD personnel perform these services. At other times, districts may share personnel who have special expertise. In addition, there is the benefit of being able to share the cost of more expensive outside experts.

Other benefits participants gain through collaboration are psychological support, professional growth, and increased job effectiveness. School administrators can be isolated and lonely, and collegial relationships with those in similar positions in other districts can be helpful in increasing job satisfaction and effectiveness. Teachers enjoy these same benefits and gain new perspectives and skills from the process of working with others on cooperative projects.

Political benefits are realized both locally and statewide through collective lobbying efforts and through sharing of information. Locally, districts can join together to more effectively resolve collective bargaining problems. On a state level, small school district needs can sometimes be overlooked; collaboration can build a power base through which common needs can be made known, resulting in more effective resolution of problems.

Members must believe that their goals can be better achieved through joint effort as compared to working independently.

Problems

Although our questionnaire brought up a significantly higher number of benefits as compared to problems, some problems with cross-school collaboration were mentioned. The most frequently mentioned problem was a lack of funding for collaborative projects. Resources for school improvement projects are becoming increasingly scarce in Oregon and across the nation.

Another problem is conflicting work priorities. Collaborative efforts require time commitments, and administrators in small districts often have many responsibilities making it difficult for them to find the time for collaboration. Teachers must be released from school to participate in curriculum or staff development projects, resulting in costs that can be overwhelming to a small district.

Conflicting goals among districts is a problem that requires negotiation and consideration of the needs of others. Those who collaborate need to keep in mind that a balance needs to be achieved between getting and giving so that all members feel that the benefits are worth the costs.

Assistance

When asked whether they would like to have assistance in cross-school collaboration, over 60% of the superintendents responded in the affirmative. The most frequently mentioned forms of assistance were funding for collaborative efforts and communication linkages.

The need for funding does not seem surprising since during the last 8 years the federal government has significantly reduced funding for school improvement projects. In this environment of reduced financial support for schools, we are seeing in Oregon the gradual decrease of financial support for consortia. There has been a corresponding increase in the number of networks and coalitions because these less formal organizations can continue to operate during times of tight funding, as they do not depend upon an outside source of funds.

Communication linkages can be facilitated through computer networks, newsletters, and conferences so that information about staff development and school improvement would be available to organizations that would benefit by collaborating with others with similar needs and goals. The state of Oregon is actively facilitating these linkages in the hopes of fostering the development or expansion of collaborative efforts within the state.

From our studies, there are several conclusions that should be kept in mind by those who venture into collaborative agreements.

Collaboration is not easy. It requires initiative, communication skills, cooperative norms, and perhaps most significantly, a considerable time commitment from those who participate in such efforts.

1. **There must be a shared vision of the mission of the collaborative organization and this mission must be consistent with the goals of the individual organizations.** Members must believe that their goals can be better achieved through joint effort as compared to working independently. The three collaborative organizations studied here all have common purposes and goals, and they can share experiences and ideas about future directions for growth.

2. **Decision making must be shared.** Issues related to role expectations, interpersonal communications, leadership, and funding should be resolved through collaborative problem solving and decision making. In each of the organizations we studied, members articulated their needs and dealt with these needs through group action.

3. **Those who are engaged in collective work must recognize that collaboration is a process, not an outcome.** While it is important that participants in these organizations find them intellectually stimulating, collaborative, and enjoyable, these collaborative efforts must accomplish jointly what could not be accomplished individually.

4. **Collaboration should be based on mutual needs and benefits.** Negotiation and balance should prevail in order to satisfy the needs of various organizations. Member agencies should be prepared to give in some areas to get benefits in another.

5. **Diversity is healthy and should be encouraged.** The rich pooling of human resources from the ranks of teachers, administrators, and university professors results in an interweaving of ideas, attitudes, and skills that benefits the entire organization.

Recommendations

Cross-school collaboration offers one mechanism for improving the staff development efforts of our public schools. In this period of diminishing resources and increasing public demands for better schools, cross-organizational collaboration affords a way of pursuing school improvement while sharing and controlling costs. However, collaboration is not easy. It requires initiative, communication skills, cooperative norms, and perhaps most significantly, a considerable time commitment from those who participate in such efforts. Districts that are willing and able to provide time for such efforts will gain the benefits of increased staff effectiveness, psychological support for their members, and in the long run, cost savings in staff development.

It is our belief, after studying collaboration in Oregon over the last 3 years, that institutions of higher education and education service agencies should become more active in initiating and developing formal consortia and coalitions. This would result in increased effectiveness of staff development for all involved through the sharing of resources, ideas, and information.

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The Teacher Renewal Institute

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A multidistrict staff development program provided training for teams of staff developers who, in turn, provided training for teachers in their respective schools.

RACHAEL HEATH
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FERN MANN

An effective, unique, and cost effective staff development consortium began in Eastern Pennsylvania in 1984 and has since flourished. The goal of the consortium is to train teachers and their building principal in both teaching and content skills so they might in turn train other colleagues within their buildings. Thus, training of peers ultimately would lead to individual renewal, better school climate, curriculum updating, and skill building, which in turn would ensure improvement of the instructional program. The development of the Teacher Renewal Institute, its organizational structure, evaluation of the institute, and future plans are discussed here.

Development of the Teacher Renewal Institute

In the fall of 1984, the staff of the Carbon-Lehigh Intermediate Unit 21 (a regional service organization near Allentown, Pennsylvania) convened a planning committee of teachers and administrators representing the 14 school districts in its service area to define the need for, explore the possibility of, and devise a management plan for a program of teachers helping teachers. The formation of this committee was in response to district superintendents' directives that such a program be explored.

Following general guidelines set by district superintendents, the intermediate unit staff established a planning timeline, arranged for planning assistance from "Research for Better Schools" and selected a planning committee composed of teacher representatives and school-based and central office administrators.

The planning committee met eight times at 2-week intervals from February to mid-May for the purpose of gathering and analyzing needs assessment information, receiving background information on potential program topics, and selecting a structure for a teachers-helping-teachers program. Meetings ranged from formal presentations to informal discussions, with large and small group formats. On-site visits to school districts were made to gather first-hand information on other staff development programs. Out-of-state presenters and local experts were included in the planning process. Literature on per-

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The goal of the consortium is to train teachers and their building principal in both teaching and content skills so they might in turn train other colleagues within their buildings.

tinent topics was provided as requested.

The planning committee determined that a strong need existed to recognize teachers through a program that would enable them to share their teaching skills and knowledge with colleagues. The planning committee believed this type of program would not only revitalize the energies and commitment of individual teachers but also would enhance and strengthen the instructional program within specific schools and throughout entire school districts.

The planning committee determined that a strong need existed to recognize teachers through a program that would enable them to share their teaching skills and knowledge with colleagues. The planning committee believed this type of program would not only revitalize the energies and commitment of individual teachers but also would enhance and strengthen the instructional program within specific schools and throughout entire school districts.

While the Carbon-Lehigh Intermediate Unit, as well as individual districts and schools, offered a variety of inservice courses and workshops designed to be supportive and helpful to teachers, the planning committee perceived a need for centralized leadership in creating a single, high quality program that drew upon expertise, personnel, and financial resources from the 14 districts served by the unit.

The pooling of finances and, especially, the ability to share professional concerns with peers, provided a unique opportunity to create a program to help educators (a) provide or create opportunities for professional growth; (b) refine the necessary skills to analyze specific instructional problems in their classrooms, grade levels, buildings, or districts; (c) devise strategies to alleviate or eliminate such problems; and (d) share these skills with others. With these opportunities, educators presumably would feel more confident in their roles, more in control of their teaching, and more aware of their professional worth.

After considering the needs, objectives, and program possibilities, the planning committee identified six different programs that would enable teachers to help teachers. When matched against knowledge of the local unit's strengths, interests, and needs, a single plan, the Teacher Renewal Institute, was devised to renew teachers and build on present instructional concerns.

The staff development approaches which were selected incorporated conclusions drawn from adult learning research, such as offering knowledge the participant perceives as being useful, employing presenters renowned for their own skills and knowledge, involving participants in a series of learning activities, conducting courses at convenient times and places, and providing periodic feedback and encouragement.

Organizational Structure of the Institute

The administrative and governing structure for the institute is described below, along with a review of the ways that the actual training was conducted.

Administrative and Governing Structure

Participating school districts were those which were members of the Carbon-Lehigh Intermediate Unit and were willing to give a percentage of their instructional improvement monies to fund the Teacher Renewal Institute. Advisory committees were created to oversee the operation of the program and to assist in making recommendations for improvement. The Carbon-Lehigh Intermediate Unit staff would work with the Teacher Renewal Institute to meet its objectives.

Delivery of Training

There were two levels of training: training for members of school-based training teams, and training these teams would then provide in their respective schools.

Training Teams. The planning committee decided to have one training team in each participating district for each program topic identified. This team was responsible for training teachers in their home school. Based on needs assessment data, the two topics addressed the first year were motivation and classroom management and discipline. Since that time, a critical thinking skill component has been added.

Selection as a member of a training team enabled participants to renew their commitment to teaching through recognition of their professional worth, to gain new knowledge and skills to enhance current programs of instruction, and to reinvigorate their confidence as agents of change.

Each team consisted of two competent teachers and an administrator. For the most part, participants were outstanding educators who were highly respected by peers.

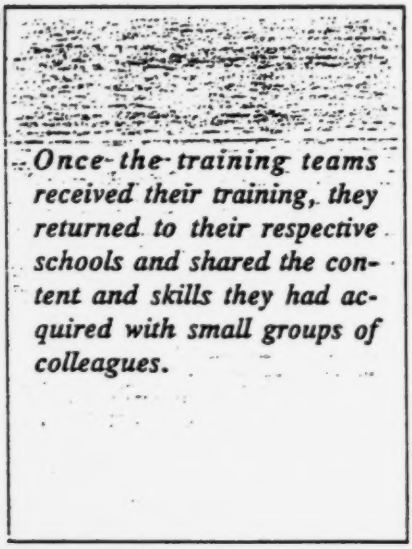
The planning committee recommended that training team participants from each district be selected from the same school. Research has indicated there is a greater rate of success in sharing information if there is professional and peer support.

All professional employees in the districts were eligible to participate in the training teams. However, the planning committee believed the institute could best succeed if team participants were selected from those who already demonstrated a keen interest in personal and professional growth, who could make a serious commitment of time and energy to advancing academic and professional programs, and whose colleagues held them in high esteem. Above all, the success of this venture depended heavily upon the attitude of participants. Volunteers were first elicited from among identified top-notch educators.

Selection as a member of a training team enabled participants to renew their commitment to teaching through recognition of their professional worth, to gain new knowledge and skills to enhance current programs of instruction, and to reinvigorate their confidence as agents of change. These skilled teams returned to their districts or schools to share these skills in a variety of ways with peers.

For each institute topic, members of the training teams participated in a 5-day training program consisting of a 1-day orientation workshop, a 2-day skills workshop, a 1-day follow-up, and a 1-day evaluation session.

Each 5-day program incorporated content in the particular target topic as well as information on effective teaching methods, adult learning research, and strategies for devising action plans for sharing skills within the home school. Follow-up sessions provided opportunities for training team members to share experiences and resources, to evaluate changes made to their instructional programs, and to encourage adaptation and constant assessment to obtain the best possible program for a class or school.



Once the training teams received their training, they returned to their respective schools and shared the content and skills they had acquired with small groups of colleagues.

Training Teams Return to Their Schools. Training teams were encouraged to serve as staff developers in their buildings and share information and materials with others.

Once the training teams received their training, they returned to their respective schools and shared the content and skills they had acquired with small groups of colleagues. In addition, they added an important component — their testimony about what they had used successfully in their classrooms. In addition, each team kept a journal of the successes and concerns it experienced during the staff development process. Each training team also outlined an action plan to ensure there would be a sharing of ideas, information, and materials with other teachers in the building. The intermediate unit personnel assisted in the implementation of the action plan and in the revision of content training sessions. From these sessions, suggestions of ways of using teachers to train other teachers were identified (see Figure 1).

Evaluation of the Institute

Evaluation is a critical ingredient of any staff development program. The project represented the first staff development project coordinated by the Intermediate Unit and it was clear from the beginning that the district superintendents would be looking for data to indicate the program was having positive effects.

Evaluation information came from four sources: (a) members of the training teams, (b) teachers, (c) students, and (d) an external evaluator. All aspects were important and provided different information.

The Training Team

Based on the experiences of implementing their action plans with colleagues in their schools, training team members said that:

1. Sessions designed for training team members to share information with other teachers should take place with a small group of positive people and should not require a great deal of extra preparation

Figure 1
Ways Teachers Could Serve As Staff Developers

- Develop a pool of "hometown" experts capable of devising solutions to problems.
- Develop school-based projects through which teacher support groups implement content.
- Form materials centers for school district programs.
- Provide workshops or seminars for credit, for enrichment, and for specific concerns, such as new teacher orientation.
- Provide inservice programs: either grade-level, school-wide, district-wide, or affinity-based.
- Present materials to a small group of teachers on how to improve classroom management skills, motivation skills, and critical thinking skills, as the start of future staff development programs in the district.
- Work together to develop and maintain a relevant, consistent, and shared discipline policy and practice.
- Assist new teachers to become effective classroom managers, and thereby, ensure standard utilization of building policies and procedures.
- Renew teacher perspective on the various areas of classroom management by reviewing background knowledge, perceptions, and current practices, and presenting research-based support information.
- Affect student achievement and/or behavior through the use of positive reinforcement and/or consistent discipline.
- Share ideas with small positive groups of teachers on how to motivate pupils and have the groups try the ideas in the classroom.
- Motivate teachers to want to improve their teaching by using videotaped sessions followed by positive feedback. Also, provide positive reinforcement to those teachers who show extra effort on behalf of the students, school, and faculty.
- Provide the means to instill motivation in students and teachers, thereby promoting increased student learning, teacher enthusiasm, and an increased self-concept for both.
- Work together to improve the building climate.
- Revise the curriculum to effectively link the written, taught, and tested components.

time by the training team.

2. Training team members should believe in the value of the sharing process in order to promote positive change in the overall instructional program.

3. Small grants ($500) from the Intermediate Unit should continue to be used to cover costs for substitute teachers, overtime hours, and materials.

4. The Intermediate Unit staff and steering committee members should continue to be relied on, as the need arises, to provide assistance in developing action plans, critiquing presentations, and other services.

Teachers

Because participants came from several different environments (from large, urban districts to small, rural ones) it is difficult to design a program that would be meaningful and appropriate for all. Thus, participant feedback helped the program designers refine the program to better meet the individual needs of school districts. They found that:

1. Teachers need some training to be effective in sharing information with peers. As talented as teachers might be, they often haven't had much opportunity to work as staff developers.

2. Teachers need to be given time to be effective staff developers as well as competent teachers. Recommendations from teachers included using substitute teachers, paying for after school work, and rearranging schedules.

3. Principals should continue to support the teachers and make necessary arrangements.

4. Teachers need opportunities to talk with peers about successes and problems after attempting to implement new strategies in their classroom. Sharing is a key component of the institute.

Students

The classroom teachers who received training from the training team kept journals of student progress and cited such student outcomes as: enhanced learning caused by a more positive climate, more student awareness of mutual responsibility in the classroom, successes experienced by individual students, and pride which students expressed about their achievements. It could be very difficult to "prove" that teachers as staff developers led to improved student outcomes, but these comments by teachers indicated that there were some positive results.

The External Evaluator

An external evaluator from higher education did a case study of four team projects. In three of the four, teachers were able to share information with colleagues, and it was positively received. In two projects, the evaluator observed increased attempts by teachers to motivate students to achieve at higher levels. Additionally, positive changes in classroom behavior were observed.

Evaluation results have been shared periodically with all superintendents in the Intermediate Unit. Initial fears about overburdening good teachers seemed to have been allayed by the positive results from the participants. The program has continued and expanded. Two additional districts, two area vocational-technical schools, and special education staff from the intermediate unit were involved during 1986-87. There also will be a continuing program for teachers who participated in the Teacher Renewal Institute and who would like continual support.

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Future Plans

The local business community have become involved with the institute by hosting workshops, providing space and audio-visual equipment for the training sessions, and, in some cases, lunches and personnel. They have responded very favorably to the educators' willingness to grow and support each other in the process.

A representative from higher education will be involved again as an external evaluator. This year the representative will also give a keynote address at the final session sharing reflections of what has been observed regarding the process of teachers helping teachers to grow. A representative from industry will play a similar role.

Graduates of the Teacher Renewal Institute will have the opportunity to share what they have learned. They will continue to share strategies and techniques with staff in their buildings. Also some will have the opportunity to teach an in-service course through the intermediate unit.

Summary

New Jersey Governor Thomas H. Kean discussed the importance of ways to empower teachers to do their jobs more effectively. He cited the importance of getting teachers more involved in professional decisions within the school and the need to help teachers better share their talents and knowledge with colleagues.

Teachers as staff developers, such as experienced in the Teacher Renewal Institute, gives credence to the beliefs that (a) teachers can serve in leadership roles, (b) teachers must be active learners in order to fully understand the learning environment in their classrooms, and (c) the entire educational environment is improved for staff members as well as for students when teachers serve as staff developers.

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Providing Regional Support for School Improvement

A school improvement support service for 26 districts was provided through a comprehensive plan for orientation, implementation, and support.

BEATRICE E. ROCK

How do rural school districts muster enough financial and professional support for comprehensive school improvement efforts? This is the story of how one regional educational agency in central New York developed and is currently delivering a school improvement support service to educators in 26 school districts. This case study provides a detailed account of the support services which have resulted in a cadre of people prepared and willing to move forward with school-based collaborative planning for school improvement.

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Background

In 1987 the Wayne-Finger Lakes Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES), an agency whose purpose is to provide schools with economical educational services, was asked by its component districts to fund a comprehensive school improvement support service that would meet the needs of districts interested in engaging in a formal school improvement process.

The districts requested that leadership training regarding school improvement concepts and strategies be provided as well as school-focused staff development activities related to the development of collaborative communication skills. A Director of School Improvement Programs was hired that spring to develop, implement, and monitor the effectiveness of these staff development efforts.

The school improvement support service had three parts: an awareness component designed to *orient* teachers, administrators, and board of education members to the basic language and concepts of the school effectiveness research (Brookover, 1982; Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer, & Wisenbaker, 1979; Edmonds, 1979; Lezotte, Edmonds, & Ratner, 1974; Rutter, Maugham, Mortimore, Ouston, & Smith, 1979); a workshop component aimed at helping districts *implement* a school improvement planning model based upon this research; and a *support* component focused on providing ongoing coordination and technical assistance to educators engaged in the school improvement process. The school-focused staff development offered through the Wayne-Finger Lakes BOCES School Improvement Support Service is illustrated in Figure 1.

Orientation

A first step in providing orientation training occurred during the summer of 1987 when a principals' academy was offered to principals from the BOCES component districts. The rationale for orienting principals first was based on the belief that, as the instructional leaders in their buildings, principals could best disseminate information and build local support for the school improvement process.

Seventy-five administrators attended the academy held at Cornell University, learning about the school effectiveness research from Larry Lezotte and Wilbur Brookover. Other consultants provided information about improvement initiatives related to curriculum and instruction: Fenwick English, William Spady, and Robert Sudlow. Furthermore, Susan Loucks-Horsley presented literature regarding the change process.

As part of the academy program, a 4-day Leadership Communication Skills workshop was also offered. At this workshop, principals were taught the skills needed for working collaboratively with school improvement teams. Based on the work of Bolton (1979), this workshop focused on developing each principal's ability to listen effectively, build consensus and collegiality among staff members, engage in conflict resolution, and facilitate cooperative problem solving.

As a result of the academy experience, the principals were prepared to assist the Director of School Improvement Programs in providing orientation programs to local staff and boards of education. The content of these initial programs centered on the school effectiveness research, with the format varying according to need from 1-hour overview sessions to whole-day programs structured for presentation and discussion.

One school sponsored a program in which the entire staff heard from a panel of teachers and administrators from another district regarding the school effectiveness research and how this research had translated to a school improvement process in their own district. A question and answer period was followed by small group reaction meetings.

During the 1987-88 school year, almost every district in the Wayne-Finger Lakes BOCES region sponsored similar school improvement orientation meetings leading to the formation of district teams. At this point, it was necessary to develop the implementation phase of the support services.

Implementation

Four workshops were developed to help teams accomplish the specific tasks associated with the school improvement planning process. Three of these were designed to give teams in-depth information about the research and to provide them with the time needed to apply what they had learned. A fourth workshop focused on group process skills. These workshops are described below.

This case study provides a detailed account of the support services which have resulted in a cadre of people prepared and willing to move forward with school-based collaborative planning for school improvement.

1. **Developing the District Plan.** District teams needed to know about the structure and possible content of the district plans. Superintendents, principals, parents, and teachers who served on district teams attended a 2-day workshop called "Developing the District Plan." workshop was designed to help them velop the components of a district plan: the mission statement, project goals, definitions of effectiveness, standards for monitoring improvement, and guidelines for structuring the work of building-level teams. To date, 17 district plans have been developed as a result of participation in this workshop.

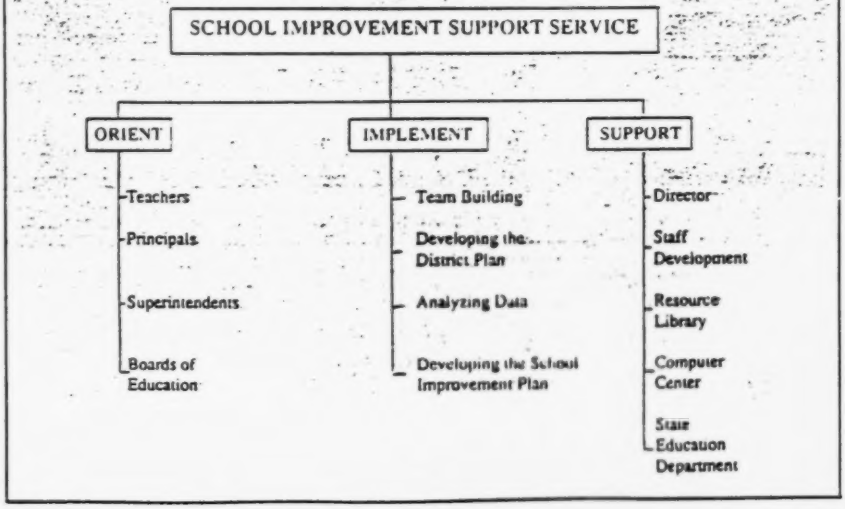
2. **Analyzing Data.** The next step was to form building-level school improvement teams. Each team consisted of 8 to 10 members, including the principal. As these teams were formed, they attended a 1-day workshop called "Analyzing Data." This session prepared teams to collect and analyze student achievement and staff perceptions data.

At the end of this workshop, participants knew how to collect and analyze student achievement data for the purpose of assessing whether subsets of the student population were being equitably served. They also learned how to interpret the results of a survey of staff perceptions. In 1988, 28 school improvement teams attended this readiness workshop in preparation for the development of their own building-based school improvement plans.

3. **Developing the School Improvement Plan.** This 5-day workshop helped teams analyze data and formulate im-

Figure 1

The Wayne-Finger Lakes BOCES School Improvement Support Services



At the end of this workshop, participants knew how to collect and analyze student achievement data for the purpose of assessing whether subsets of the student population were being equitably served. They also learned how to interpret the results of a survey of staff perceptions.

provement strategies based on the data. Teams engaged in:

- Identifying strengths and areas of concern.
- Setting goals and objectives.
- Establishing activities.
- Developing an implementation timeline.
- Designing evaluation procedures.

As evidence of success, every planning team came away from the workshop with a school improvement plan based on local needs. Intangible rewards for participants included feelings of accomplishment, collegiality, and optimism. One enthusiastic teacher remarked that for the first time "the responsibility and power for school improvement is in the hands of teachers."

By summer 1989, about 500 people representing 50 building teams will have taken part in this workshop. As a result, 50 school improvement plans will be implemented in fall 1989. Their plans range from developing sequential grade level objectives to creating a schoolwide climate of high expectations.

4. **Collaborative Communication Skills Workshop.** Since collaborative team planning is at the heart of the school improvement model and since not everyone possesses the collaborative skills needed for successful and effective teamwork, a 2-day Collaborative Communication Skills workshop was developed and is currently being offered to teams. The skills of the course include active listening, assertion, conflict resolution, and cooperative problem solving. This workshop sets the conditions for successful collaborative team planning by teaching people critical group process skills that are needed for true collaboration to take place.

In summary, the implementation phase of these support services consists of structured workshops designed to help people plan for the development and implementation of their school improvement action plans. The actual implementation process occurs in individual buildings and is initiated, monitored, and evaluated by the people who develop the plans.

Support

A well defined, fully-articulated school improvement support service requires flexibility if it is to remain vibrant and responsive to local districts and their needs. Besides offering a sequence of established workshops, the Director of School Improvement Programs provides support by delivering or brokering specially-designed staff development activities as needed.

If, for instance, a school improvement team should indicate the need for an inservice program related to raising teacher expectations, the Director would arrange for them and their colleagues to participate in a Teacher Expectation Student Achievement (TESA) workshop. Similarly, if a team requested information about curriculum alignment, the services of an appropriate consultant would be sought and offered.

The development of a resource library is another element of the support component. Professional books, periodicals, audiotapes, and videotapes are made available to teams as they engage in researching particular school improvement strategies. A bibliography is frequently updated and circulated to team members.

Finally, the Regional Computer Center and the New York State Education Department play supportive roles. The Regional Computer Center provides assistance by scanning the staff perception survey instruments and by analyzing student achievement data according to the subsets of the population. The State Education Department offers assistance via the Effective Schools Consortia Network, a statewide organization whose purpose is to disseminate information regarding effective practices and school improvement initiatives.

What We Have Learned

Collaborative team planning for school improvement is a complicated process requiring expertise and ongoing support. We have learned that many key pieces must be put into place if a school improvement support service is to effectively assist the work of school improvement teams. Based on what we have learned, we offer the following suggestions:

- **Enlist the aid of excellent consultants.** In our case, expertise was provided by nationally-known consultants in the areas of curriculum and instruction, school effectiveness research, instructional leadership, and the change process. These consultants provided teachers and principals with new information, making a high-level

dialogue possible regarding school improvement strategies.

- **Designate a staff developer to design and deliver team workshops.** The structure provided by clearly-defined workshops offers teams a framework within which to work. A staff developer who is experienced and knowledgeable about research, effective practices, and group process is needed to design and deliver team workshops.
- **Build a broad base of support.** From the very beginning, teachers, administrators, and boards of education should have a clear picture of what teams are attempting to accomplish when they engage in the school improvement process. This ensures that the necessary resources will be available at critical points in the process and also paves the way for acceptance of school improvement plans when they are presented to a staff. In our region we have built a base of support through widespread orientation and training.

The skills of the course include active listening, assertion, conflict resolution, and cooperative problem solving. This workshop sets the conditions for successful collaborative team planning by teaching people critical group process skills that are needed for true collaboration to take place.

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INTRODUCTION

With today's shrinking dollars and declining enrollment, Boards of Education are faced with very difficult decisions on how to maintain or expand curriculum. Three school districts in Northern New York State, in cooperation with St. Lawrence-Lewis BOCES, have implemented a microwave information delivery system which provides two-way audio and visual instructional television communication among the schools, as well as the sharing of other information such as computer data and library resources. The three school districts are Edwards Central School, Gouverneur Central School and Harrisville Central School, as well as the St. Lawrence-Lewis BOCES in Canton.

An interactive television network provides a method for the districts to maintain a high quality curriculum without consolidation or exchanging students or teachers. Each school is equipped with a tower and two dish antennas to receive and transmit microwave signals. The schools have a room equipped with a color camera, live microphone, viewing monitors for students, and two televisions for the instructor to view the classes in the other schools. The system provides full time visual and audio communications between the instructor and students.

HOW AN INTERACTIVE TELEVISION SYSTEM WORKS

A. Microwave TV is similar to standard broadcast television except it has a short range and operates at a much higher frequency. Microwave antennas and transceivers are combined with video cameras, microphones and monitors to provide two-way communication links between schools.

B. At the originating school, a microhone and TV camera are directed toward the instructor to provide audio and video signals to students in the other schools. In turn, a camera and microphone are used to provide return pictures and sound to the instructor.

C. The picture and sound signals are delivered between schools via microwave links. This could also be accomplished with cable links installed between schools in city and suburban areas, or a combination of both.

D. The microwave TV system permits the instructor to interact with students at distant schools on a direct and personal level.

THE BENEFITS OF AN INTERACTIVE TELEVISION SYSTEM

A. Decreases or eliminates the need to consolidate school districts.

B. Allows smaller school districts to maintain curriculum offerings and/or increase course offerings.

C. Allow for greater flexibility in student scheduling.

D. Helps to breakdown barriers between neighboring communities.

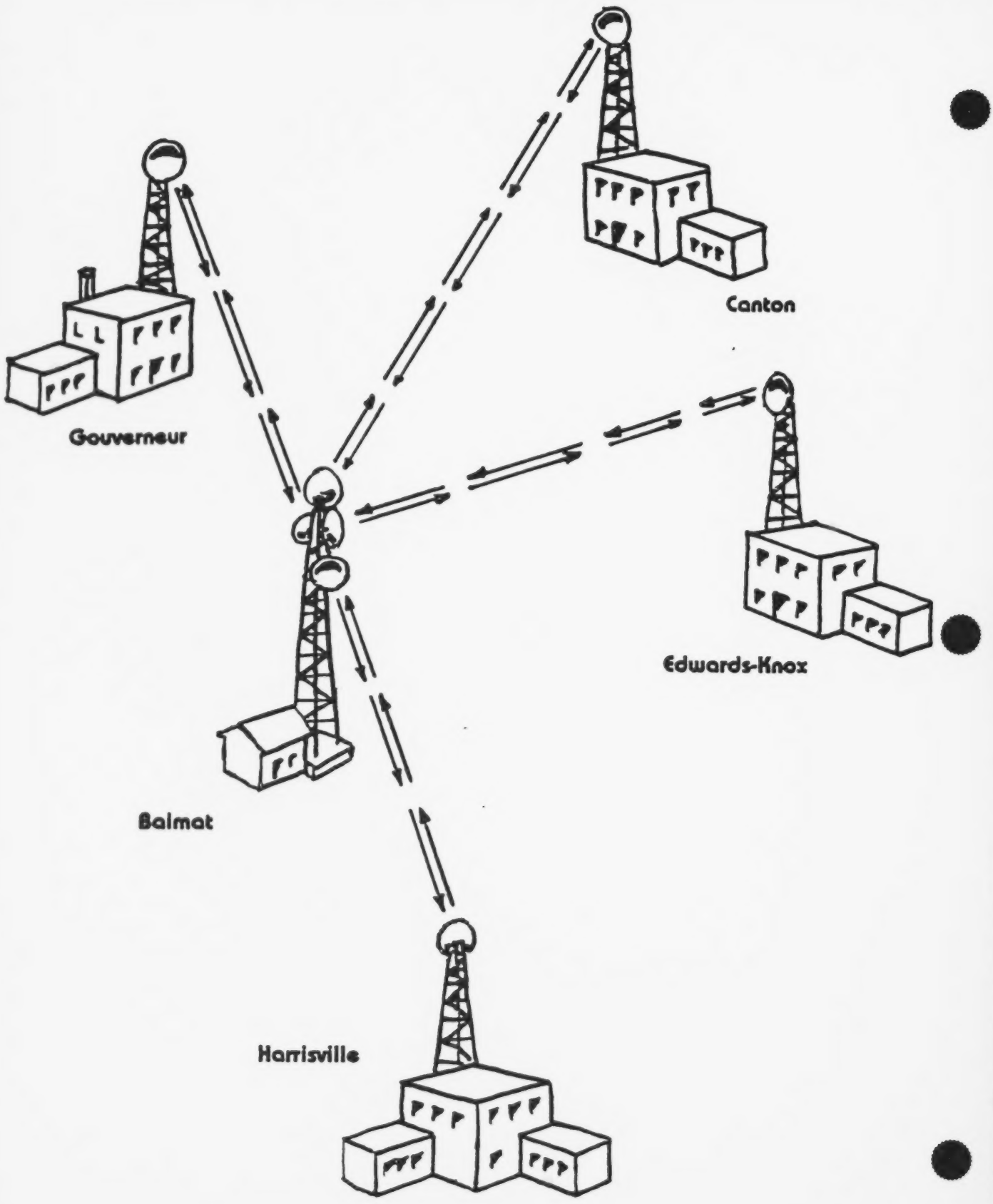
E. Allows for communication of computerized data to and among school districts without phone links or bills.

F. Affords students the opportunity to work with sophisticated audio-visual equipment.

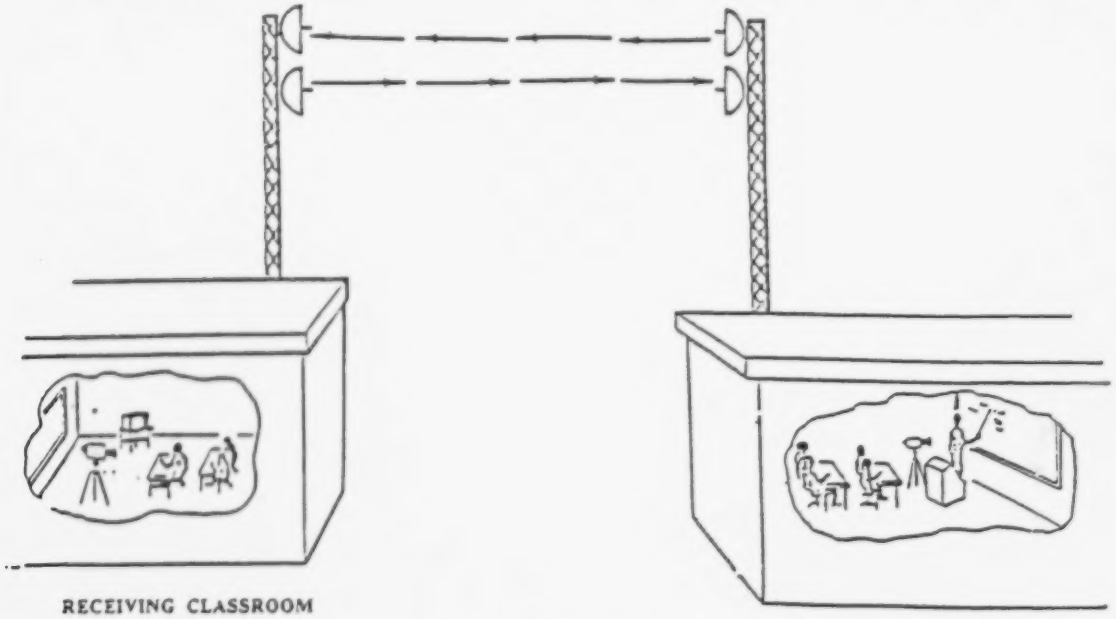
G. Teaching students the need to adapt to high technology in an ever changing society.

H. Allows districts to specialize their library holdings, thus providing more information to the same number of students at the same cost.

I. Allows for teleconferencing among the Boards of Education and staffs of the school districts, thus eliminating transportation costs.


Canton
Gouverneur
Edwards-Knox
Balmat
Harrisville

TWO-WAY INTERACTIVE TELECOMMUNICATIONS



RECEIVING CLASSROOM

1. Camera on Students
2. Monitor Positioned for Student Viewing

ORIGINATING CLASSROOM

1. Camera on Instructor
2. Monitor Positioned for Instruction Viewing

OBJECTIVES OF INTERACTIVE TELEVISION PROJECTS

A. To provide two channels of two-way interactive television between Edwards, Gouverneur and Harrisville school district for the purpose of sharing educational/instructional classroom programming.

B. To provide facsimile and data links between the schools and the BOCES Central Office in Canton, New York.

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SCHEDULE

PERIOD	SUBJECT	ORIGINATES FROM
1	Health	Edwards
2	Shorthand	Gouverneur
3	Psychology/Sociology	Harrisville
4	Spanish I	Edwards
5	AP English	Gouverneur
6	Business Law	Harrisville
7	AP Math	Gouverneur

SECTION 4

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES
and BIBLIOGRAPHY

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES TO CONSIDER

Continuing To Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development by Susan Loucks-Horsley, Catherine Harding, Margaret Arbuckle, Lynn Murray, Cynthia Dubea, and Martha Williams. Based on the latest research and good practice, it defines the characteristics and components of good staff development programs and recommends ways to establish and improve them. This Information Packet, Effective Staff Development In Rural and Small Schools, contains reprints of Chapter Two and excerpts from Chapter Four of Continuing To Learn. Available from The Regional Laboratory, 290 South Main Street, Andover, MA 01810 ($10.00 plus $2.50 postage and handling). Please cite order number 9033-99.

Building Systems For Professional Growth: An Action Guide by Margaret A. Arbuckle and Lynn B. Murray is a comprehensive resource guide for the staff developer. The GUIDE is comprised of an introduction and eight chapters that coincide with the steps in building a staff development system. Topics include getting started, designing a collaborative structure, building a team, educating decision makers, determining priority needs, designing oppportunities for professional growth, maintaining a system over time and conducting meaningful evaluations. Each chapter presents an overview of the topic, complete directions for group activities for a staff development team and much more. For further information, contact The Regional Laboratory, 290 South Main Street, Andover, MA 01810, (508) 470-0098.

Encouraging Staff To Collaborate For Instructional Effectiveness (Sept. 1989) by Stuart Smith and James Scott, published by the Oregon School Study Council. This bulletin has been adapted from a book, The Collaborative School: A Work Environment for Effective Instruction, that will be copublished by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management at the University of Oregon and the National Association of Secondary School Principals. They summarize research pointing "to a strong association between collaborative norms/practices and student achievement, school renewal, and teachers' openness to learning." Available from the Oregon School Study Council, 1787 Agate Street, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403 ($6.00, ISSN 0095-6694).

In-Service Education for Staff Development (1989) by Ben Harris, is a source book full of practical approaches to all aspects of in-service education. The book provides a scholarly yet comprehensive presentation of state-of-the-art in-service education. Available from Allyn and Bacon, Inc., College Division, Rockleigh, NJ 07647 ($36.95).

"The Journal of Staff Development" is must reading for any educator responsible for staff development. This quarterly magazine is published by the National Staff Development Council. You will notice that a number of articles in this Information Packet, Effective Staff Development In Rural and Small Schools, are reprinted with permission from the journal. Previous issues have focused on such issues as staff development for teaching thinking (Fall 1987), enacting change through staff development (Spring 1988), peer coaching and mentoring (Spring 1987), and technology in staff development (Fall 1989). Membership in NSDC ($50), includes the journal, a monthly newsletter, and other services. For further information, please write P. O. Box 240 Oxford, OH 45056-9981.

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APPENDIX I

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